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ABSTRACT

This historically significant booklet explores problems and practices in the teaching of foreign languages in the elementary school. Specific chapters discuss second language offerings, student age and ability, enrollment criteria, program articulation, teaching techniques, and teacher qualifications. Variations in presentation for different levels of instruction are discussed. An appendix includes a selected bibliography of syllabuses, guides, references, and source materials with 15 sample French lessons. (RL)

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# The Teaching of
# *Foreign Languages*
# in the Elementary School

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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*Preliminary Edition*

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# FOREWORD

Two World Wars taking hundreds of thousands of our men and women to other continents, our grave military responsibilities in Korea and in Europe, and our world-wide Technical Assistance Program have all served to make our American public aware that the most distant peoples are now our neighbors. With this awareness has come the realization that we need foreign languages in the building of international understanding. Once this need was recognized, our educators acted without delay. Guided by principles which have long been known and which have been confirmed by new observation and research, they have taken advantage of the child's best language-learning period and have introduced foreign languages into the early grades of the elementary school. Latest estimates indicate that by the end of the school year 1952-1953 about one hundred communities in some thirty states were conducting foreign language programs in one or more public elementary schools.

This little book is a study of this rapidly developing trend. In it I have tried to relate the chief problems encountered in elementary school language programs to the essential principles of language learning and language teaching. The book is meant to be both theoretical and practical, for successful practice is possible only if it is rooted in sound theory. A critical bibliography consisting of guides and syllabi, of texts, and of reference and source materials is intended to aid those who may wish to pursue the study of foreign language teaching in the elementary school. To assist those seeking practical guidance I have appended fifteen lessons of French suitable for use in launching a program in the primary grades. This material is sufficient for five weeks, at least. The lessons are presented in French because only one language could be used as a model within the limits set by this preliminary edition. The skillful teacher can easily convert the lessons into any other language by the use of the Key which furnishes English equivalents.

Since the book has been put together rather hastily, it contains some imperfections. My publisher has therefore agreed to issue it in a temporary, preliminary edition. The preliminary edition is in a very real sense the product of group enterprise, as I shall explain presently, rather than an individual achievement. It is my hope that fellow educators in various fields will consider the foundation worth building on and will send us suggestions for the improvement of the definitive edition. The book is more likely to serve the profession well if the profession takes a vigorous part in its fashioning.

In common with many language teachers I had long wondered why foreign languages were not more widely taught in our elementary schools, particularly in view of such successful programs as those of the Cleveland schools and Public School 208 in Brooklyn. My own determination to find an answer to this question dates back to one Sunday morning in the summer of 1951, when I read in the *New York Times* an account by Benjamin Fine of the experimental French program being conducted in the fifth and sixth grades of the Vance School of New Britain, Connecticut. A conference with the organizer of this experiment, Dr. Arthur M. Selvi of the Teachers College of Connecticut at New Britain, revealed someone who was intent upon studying the same problem, experimentally. Dr. Selvi agreed to head a committee to investigate the problem. In April, 1952, he submitted to the Yale-Barnard Conference on the Teaching of French a well documented report which created an excellent impression. In March of 1953 he submitted to the Barnard-Yale Conference on the Teaching of French another substantial report on the teaching of French in the elementary school. The principal effect of these reports was to make a segment of the language-teaching profession aware that languages were already being taught in the elementary school in a surprising number of places and with great success.

Two weeks after the Yale-Barnard Conference, on May 3, 1952, Dr. Earl J. McGrath, who was then United States Commissioner of Education, speaking before a large gathering of teachers in St. Louis, pointed out the urgent need of foreign languages in today's shrinking world and sounded a call to action by urging that languages be started in the elementary school. He followed up this epoch-making speech by organizing the National Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Schools. This Conference, which in January, 1953, brought to Washington some 350 educators and interested laymen from a variety of different fields, has been perhaps the most important single event in the move toward introducing foreign languages into our public elementary schools. It was particularly significant in that it brought together professional educators and language teachers for study of a common problem.

Another important event in this language story occurred when the Rockefeller Foundation made a grant to the Modern Language Association for a three-year study to determine how foreign languages should be taught in America. The MLA-FL Study, as it is called, was formally launched at the Annual Meeting of the Modern Language Association in Boston in December, 1952. It has assembled an impressive amount of live and lively information and has already in its first year done much to raise the morale of the language teachers.

It is natural that the language debate, which in our country is conducted all the way from the grass roots to the national level, should have its international counterpart. By good fortune it does, for during the month of August, 1953, UNESCO sponsored in Ceylon an international language seminar under the official title of International Seminar on the Contribution of the Teaching of Modern Languages toward Education for Living in a World Community.

The channels of communication, national and international, are therefore open, and educators who are interested in the solution of the many outstanding problems of language teaching and language learning should feel encouraged to work on these problems, both individually and collectively.

The present book is a product of the great activity which is taking place in the field of languages. It has drawn on the wealth of data assembled by the conferences and studies to which I have referred, and it is to be hoped that the International Seminar will contribute some useful perspectives to the final edition. The book in its present form would be less complete were it not for the assistance of many persons. They should not share with me responsibility for its defects, but they deserve my sincere thanks for many a constructive suggestion. The text has benefited greatly from critical reading, in whole or in part, by Dr. Nelson Brooks of Westover School, Middlebury, Connecticut; by Dr. Bessie Lee Gambrill, Associate Professor Emeritus of Elementary Education, Yale University; by Professor André Mesnard of Barnard College; by Dr. Vincenzo Cioffari of D. C. Heath and Company; and by my wife, Harriet Murdock Andersson. The bibliography and the sample lessons are to a large degree the work of Dr. Brooks. To my wife I owe a double debt of gratitude, for she visited fourteen of the more interesting programs in various parts of the country and gave me the benefit of her sympathetic and penetrating observations. It has been inspiring to see everywhere the enthusiastic response of the children; to observe the skill and devotion of individual teachers, often working in isolation; and to realize the energy and unselfishness of program supervisors, who put in long hours of overtime in order to launch a program, supervise it adequately, entertain a stream of visitors, and reply to countless written inquiries. My wife and I are deeply grateful for the unusual courtesies shown us by superintendents, principals, supervisors, professors, and teachers in the following places:

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Baton Rouge, Hessmer, and
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Brownsburg, Lachute, Montreal,
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El Paso, Texas
Fairfield, Connecticut
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  Nashville, Tennessee
Jamestown, New York
Lawrence, Kansas
Lincoln, Nebraska
Los Angeles, California
New Britain, Connecticut
Oakwood-Dayton, Ohio
Public School 208,
  Brooklyn, New York
St. Louis, Missouri
San Diego, California
Somerville, New Jersey
Springfield, Massachusetts
Tucson, Arizona
York, Pennsylvania

T.A.

# THE TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

## Introduction -- The Present Situation

The teaching of modern foreign languages in the public schools of the United States is at the crossroads. Many teachers, conscious of working in a critical, and often unsympathetic, environment, point to declining enrollments in language classes and express the fear that languages may one day be eliminated from the high school curriculum. Others, encouraged by a growing interest in language teaching in the elementary schools, are hopeful that there lies before us a new era of fundamental rejuvenation and reform in language instruction. Thus, as in everything human, we are torn between hopes and fears. In order to decide which of these two interpretations is nearer reality, let us try to get the situation into focus.

At the beginning of our century not only the modern languages French and German but the classical languages Greek and Latin were studied as a matter of course in our public as well as in our private schools. It was then accepted in this country, as it is still accepted in parts of Europe, that languages were to the educated man the indispensable tool which permitted him on the one hand to return to the classical sources of his cultural heritage and on the other to converse with people who, while speaking other languages, were conscious of sharing the same Western civilization. There were indeed those who satisfied linguistic and cultural curiosity by studying Italian, Spanish, and even Scandinavian languages, as did Longfellow, for example. Furthermore, the social and academic elite of former days looked forward to a sojourn in Europe and almost without exception traveled extensively. In fact, professors of languages in leading universities, after their appointment and before they began their teaching, were given a year to travel and to immerse themselves in the languages and cultures that they were to teach and interpret.

In succeeding decades an increasing number of our youth went on to high school. Most of the new high school population could not as a rule look forward to going to college, and such an expensive privilege as travel was not within the reach of many. Lacking these incentives, high school students found foreign language study both difficult and unrewarding. The relative decline in the prestige of foreign languages, both classical and modern, in our schools is therefore an understandable phenomenon.

What is regrettable is that the student who has both the ability and the interest to pursue language studies tends to be engulfed by the much more numerous crowd of general students and is thus deprived of the opportunity of following his natural, if exceptional, bent. As evidence let me cite one case. The freshman class of a large senior high school was canvassed for candidates for a course in beginning Greek. Two students expressed a desire to take advantage of this opportunity, but it was decided not to offer the course for so few. Despite this disappointment both took as much language as they could and went on to become professors of languages in large universities. By discontinuing Latin prematurely, one of the two was able to get three years of Greek in college. The other has never ceased regretting his lack of Greek, almost a *sine qua non* for a college language teacher. We pay lip service to the democratic principle of full educational opportunity; but we know that in practice the individual, who is the keystone of a free society, may enjoy the democratic educational privilege of being educated to the limit of his capacity *only* if his needs and desires happen to coincide with those of a sufficient number of others. The educational cards are already stacked against the individual who *knows* what he wants to do, but what chance has the *potential* language specialist unless he is encouraged by a sympathetic counselor? It is one of the paradoxes of our educational system that it proclaims the worth of the individual and yet patterns itself on the mass man.

The poor estate of languages in the early decades of our century resulted in part from some social maladjustments. Immigrants pouring into our country by the thousands were torn between their desire to adapt themselves as quickly as possible to a new culture and especially a new language and their impulse to preserve their native cultures. Their assimilation was not always facilitated by those earlier immigrants who were not yet securely rooted in the new culture and sometimes called themselves hundred-per-cent Americans. Members of the second generation, as they took root more firmly, often and too readily renounced the language and culture of their parents. Pride in one's heritage was often replaced by shame, and the unparalleled richness and variety of our ethnical and cultural background tended to lose itself in the melting pot. Socially as well as linguistically we reached the bottom of the curve.

As the number of students in the public high schools continued to increase, the language problem became more and more acute until in the 1920's representative groups of language teachers decided to make a scientific study of the whole situation and were supported in this by the Carnegie Corporation. This research project, known as the Modern Foreign Language Study, brought together for research experts in language and in related educational fields and assembled an impressive amount of data on what was being done in high school and college language classes. Unfortunately the Study showed more concern with what was being done than with what *should* be done. The Study, though it produced much valuable material, seemed to be guided by reasoning which ran something like this: Most students study a language for only two years. The typical course of study must therefore be planned for two years. It is impossible to learn to *speak* a language in two years. It *is* possible to learn to *read* a language in two years. The main objective of the typical two-year course should therefore be learning to read. Thus we have illustrated on a vast scale the same phenomenon that was illustrated by the experience of the two high school students cited above. Once again quality is made a function of quantity and educational values are buried under numbers. It cannot of course be expected that a gigantic collective enterprise should depart very far from the temper of the times despite the presence of individual pioneers, and the times were essentially isolationist. Unfortunately, we still do not do enough to encourage the exceptional, forgetting that the great men of the past were precisely those who distinguished themselves from the run of the mill.

The inadequate conclusions of the Modern Foreign Language Study were by no means unanimously accepted, even by all of the scholars engaged in the Study, and in recent years the vast majority of leaders in the modern language field have advocated the direct or aural-oral method of teaching language. Indeed, Latin is taught by this method in Cleveland, one of our most enlightened language teaching centers. The two-year period allotted to the majority of American students for learning a foreign language has in many places been vigorously attacked as wholly inadequate. Language teachers, supported by interested and helpful administrators, have undertaken ambitious surveys and studies of local conditions and have pointed the way to improvement by proposing, too modestly, that language study should be begun at the beginning of junior high school, that is, in the seventh grade. These surveys are moving in the right direction in that they spring from a conviction that languages *are* worth learning and that they therefore require more time in the curriculum than has so far been accorded them. However, the surveys are still characterized by a certain timidity and fail to get at the real root of the difficulty.

Happily the time has come when educators concerned with the language problem are freeing themselves from their traditional inertia. Instead of letting themselves be handicapped too much by what *is*, they are asking themselves what *should be* and are even affirming that what should be *is possible*. The Foreign Language Study of the Modern Language Association supported by a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation is animated by this principle. In all parts of the country language teachers and school administrators are examining the fundamental questions. Is our present teaching of modern languages satisfactory in the light of the present world situation? What conditions are necessary to make it satisfactory?

Of those who are critical of modern language teaching in America there are a few who, arguing out of their own disastrous language experience, would eliminate language instruction. The vast majority, however, have reasons which are worth considering. They point out that modern language teaching produces such mediocre results that the educational values do not justify the time spent. This seems to me to be partly true and I believe that language teachers, instead of defending every inch of their territory as though it were a vested interest, would do well to admit the truth and go forward from there. It is not enough for them to contend simply that they need more time. It can so easily be answered, "More time, to be used in the same ineffective fashion as before?" The truth is that the moment has come for our profession to rally behind the pioneers who have already rethought the basic facts and principles of modern language teaching and have already put these principles into effect.

Guided by enlightened intuition or by simple common sense, certain educators have in isolated instances carried on really significant experiments. The introduction of French into the first grade of a number of Cleveland schools as early as 1922 by Professor Émile B. de Sauzé, with the direct multiple approach to language teaching in the high school--practice in hearing, speaking, reading, writing--which characterizes the Cleveland Plan, is a case in point.[1] Another notable experiment is that which since 1931 has permitted the teaching of French and Spanish to selected pupils in grades one to eight in Public School 208 in Brooklyn.[2] In the last two decades there have been an increasing number of programs in the grades involving the teaching of French and Spanish, and most of them have been successful. Outstanding among these are the Los Angeles,[3] San Diego,[4] El Paso,[5] and Somerville[6] programs.

Not until the former United States Commissioner of Education, Dr. Earl J. McGrath, electrified a large gathering of modern language teachers in St. Louis on May 2, 1952,[7] was there anything like national attention given to this trend. Somewhat unnoticed, educators--not only language teachers--had taken more and more interest in the teaching of language in the elementary school. This was natural in view of our rapidly shrinking world. The events of World War II showed the impossibility of political isolationism. The wholesale destruction of the war and the world-wide poverty and suffering, which we had either to help allay or succumb to, led to the Marshall Plan and marked the end of economic isolationism. It was therefore natural that our traditional linguistic isolation should be questioned too.

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[1] For descriptions of the Cleveland Plan see É. B. de Sauzé, *The Cleveland Plan for the Teaching of Modern Languages, with Special Reference to French,* Philadelphia, The John C. Winston Co., 1946; William McClain, "Twenty-Five Years of the Cleveland Plan", in *Education*, vol. 65 (May 1945), pp. 541-547; Sister Mary Lelia Pond, S.S.N.D., "The Multiple Approach Method of Teaching French versus the Grammar Method", in *The French Review*, vol. 13 (May 1940), pp. 475-482; É. B. de Sauzé, "An Oralist Looks at the Results", in *Education*, vol. 57, no. 7 (March 1937), pp. 422-427; É. B. de Sauzé, "Teaching French in the Elementary Schools of Cleveland", in *The French Review*, vol. 26, no. 5 (April 1953), pp. 371-376.

[2] For an account of this program and a classroom picture, see the *New York Times* of June 3, 1953, p. 33.

[3] See Grace M. Dreier, "Developing and Introducing a Program of Conversational Spanish in the Elementary Schools of Los Angeles, California", a report submitted to the National Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Schools, Washington, D. C., January 15, 1953.

[4] See *Handbook for the Teaching of Spanish in Elementary Grades* and *Guide to Resource Materials for the First Year of Spanish in the Elementary Grades, Grade IV*. Copyright 1952 and 1953 by the San Diego City Schools.

[5] See Ed Engledow, "5-Year-Olds Learn Foreign Tongues", in *Parade, The Sunday Picture Magazine*, October 12, 1952, pp. 14-17; Carlos Rivera, "The Teaching of Spanish in the First Grades of the El Paso Public Schools", in *Hispania*, vol. 35, no. 4 (November 1952), pp. 452-457; "First-Grade Beginning," in *Time*, February 2, 1953, pp. 76-77.

[6] See Dorothy Chamberlain, "Somerville's Sprouts, Linguists," in *Hispania*, vol. 34 (August 1951), pp. 290-291, and Margaret C. McCormack, "The Administration of the Foreign-Language Programs in the Elementary Schools of Somerville, New Jersey," a report submitted to the National Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Schools, Washington, D. C., January 15, 1953.

I have said that the effect of Commissioner McGrath's call to American educators to consider the critical world situation and to introduce the teaching of foreign languages into the early grades of the elementary school was electrifying. How aptly he gave expression to the feeling of many educators and of many thinking citizens was indicated by the deluge of congratulatory messages which he received. Compelled by his feeling of responsibility to provide the leadership so urgently called for, he determined to bring professional educators and language teachers together in a collaborative study of the problems involved in introducing languages into the elementary school. The National Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Schools, held in Washington on January 15 and 16, 1953, provided a picture of what was being done in the schools of the nation and assembled some of our outstanding educators for the consideration of the basic principles and conditions necessary for success in this new venture. These educators were not drawn wholly from elementary and high schools; they included professors in key positions in our colleges and universities.

Is it reasonable to assume that the teaching of foreign languages will be progressively introduced into the elementary schools of America? In my opinion it is. A glance at the status report submitted to the Washington Conference shows that, even before Commissioner McGrath's call to action, the number of experimental programs was increasing.[8] And since then new experiments have sprung up throughout the United States at an accelerating rate. We may therefore conclude, as we consider the present situation of modern languages in American education, that there is much more room for hope than for fear and that we are in fact on the threshold of a new era.

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[7] This and other addresses by Dr. McGrath on the same subject may be obtained from the U. S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington 25, D. C. Reprints of Dr. McGrath's address at the National Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Schools may also be obtained free of charge by writing to any of the offices of D. C. Heath and Company. The address of the main office is 285 Columbus Ave., Boston 16, Mass.

This does not mean, however, that the program of language teaching in the elementary school is *certain* to succeed. It will succeed only if it is well done. We must strike out along new paths, aware of traditions but not fettered by them, and resolve to set our standards as high as possible. These are the ideals which must sustain us in our efforts to do our part in helping to fashion a peaceful world. But there are also many technical conditions of success and it is the purpose of this little book to explore these conditions.

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8. According to the "Report on the Status of and Practices in the Teaching of Foreign Languages in Elementary Schools of the United States", submitted to the Washington Conferences by Miss Emilie Margaret White, seven programs are reported to have begun in the 1920's, twenty in the 1940's, and thirty-five in the first three years of the 1950's.

# CHAPTER I

## Why Begin Languages in the Elementary School?

As the Modern Foreign Language Study of 1929 established only too clearly, most language teaching in high school and college had up to that time achieved unsatisfactory results. The commonly mentioned objectives of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing a foreign language were generally not reached even in a rudimentary way, nor was an adequate knowledge of a foreign people's culture generally obtained. Thus, whether the observation was made by educators outside the language field or by the language teachers themselves, the result was the same: Language teaching was recognized to be ineffective. Of course, surveys of other fields of instruction showed just as mediocre results, but there was little comfort to be derived from comparisons.

Some educators, contending plausibly that the benefits of language study were not commensurate with the investment of time, money, and effort, urged its elimination from high school. But even in those self-sufficient and isolationist times this extremist plea represented only a minority view. Some were aware of the practical uses of languages, others defended their cultural values, but, whatever the reasons, the majority favored their retention even if the instruction was not good.

Since the thirties our relations with other peoples -- diplomatic, economic, commercial, and cultural -- have increased enormously, to the point where the usefulness of languages is almost universally admitted, and therefore their place in our schools more than ever assured.[1] As this need is recognized, however, society and therefore educators, who interpret the needs of society, demand better results from language instruction. Professional educators and language teachers, two groups that are not infrequently at variance on major issues, are in agreement in their judgment that foreign language instruction in our high schools and colleges is not adequate. But they disagree in their explanation of the unsatisfactory instruction in this field. The former group tends to attribute it chiefly to inadequate teaching and the latter to unfavorable teaching conditions. Both are right.

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[1] For interesting views on the importance of languages in America today as expressed by the president of the Institute of International Education, by an airline executive, by a representative of labor, by an Air Force officer, by a college vice-president, and others, see the special Modern Language Number of *Education*, vol. 72, no. 10 (June 1952).

In a great many of our high schools and colleges, indeed in most of them, our language instruction is substandard. The chief reason for this is that old-fashioned textual and grammatical methods have perpetuated themselves from generation to generation. The teaching of modern languages has been unfavorably influenced by the teaching of the classics. And in many cases the chief or only objective of language teaching has been to prepare students for College Board Examinations. Thus a majority of teachers have in the past treated a living modern language as though it were dead. This situation is rapidly changing, however, and more and more teachers are coming to understand that modern languages are living only in proportion as they are spoken and that they must therefore be taught by a direct aural-oral method.

On the other hand the language teacher is right in contending that he does not have time enough to teach students to speak a foreign language. It will be remembered that the Modern Foreign Language Study maintained very plausibly that two years are not enough to learn to speak a foreign language. And yet modern language teachers have so little understood the nature of language learning as to allow themselves to be reduced to a normal period of two years for teaching a language. Two years are not enough, nor are three, nor four. Language teachers must themselves understand this and must explain it clearly to others if they are to succeed in their task. Not only have language teachers too little time to teach a complex skill; they have also been forced by circumstances or tradition to attempt the impossible by teaching this skill at an age level when such a skill is learned with great difficulty. All the evidence indicates that adolescence is far from being the best time to begin learning a second language.

The reform of language teaching in America in fact requires a thoroughgoing re-examination of the basic issues. In order to know at what age level and by what methods it is best to teach a foreign language, it is necessary to know just what a foreign language is.

Language is a very complicated and delicate means of expressing or communicating meaning by use of sounds, facial expression, gestures, and written symbols. The natural way to learn a language is to learn its sounds before learning its written symbols. This is what an infant does, partly by imitating sounds heard around him, partly by playing with sounds which he invents. The phonetic potentialities of the infant or small child are almost infinite. By a process which has been called intuitive young children have many times been observed to learn several languages simultaneously without the slightest confusion or without the slightest danger to their general development.[2] This uncanny ability to absorb languages declines steadily through childhood in direct proportion as children make increased use of their rational and conceptual faculties. Learning the sound patterns of a language, which is to say learning to speak a language, is a process therefore which comes most naturally to young children.

As we remarked, language also involves the use of the written symbol. The mastery of the written symbol, whether in reading or in writing, calls for somewhat higher conceptual development. Therefore children do not generally learn to read or write before the early grades of school. Learning to read and write a foreign language should therefore follow at some distance learning to speak it. Likewise the analysis of the theory or structure of a foreign language follows upon the learning of reading and writing and again at some distance. Still later, when the mind is highly developed and tastes have been carefully cultivated, it is possible to introduce the student in a systematic way into the whole complex of a foreign culture and civilization as expressed through its language.

What is the implication of all of this for our teaching patterns? In the case of our own language it takes us five or six years to learn to speak it. It then takes us two or three or four more years to learn to read and write it. Finally it takes us several more years to develop these skills to a point where we can make use of them as a vehicle for the main concepts in our own culture.

For the achievement of a similar set of objectives in a second language our society has, through our schools, generally speaking, provided a period of two years during adolescence. A human being is, of course, so highly adaptable that he can, in fact, learn a second culture even though he starts late, but he has to be highly motivated and he has to have lots of time and an intensity of experience to make up for the late start. And yet our schools and colleges tend to treat a foreign language like any other subject in the curriculum, as though it consisted of an accumulation of abstract ideas expressed in printed symbols which can be mastered a few pages at a time in classes which meet from three to five times a week, from thirty to forty weeks in the year, for two or three years.

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[2] See J. W. Tomb, "On the Intuitive Capacity of Children to Understand Spoken Language," in the *British Journal of Psychology*, vol. 16 (July 1925), pp. 53-55.

Society is right in demanding results. If it considers languages worth studying at all, then it should consider languages worth learning, that is, learning to speak. But society is not right in requiring that these results be obtained when the conditions of teaching are such as to make them virtually impossible. And teachers are remiss in their responsibilities in consenting to attempt the impossible. It is the teacher's responsibility, knowing intimately what is involved in language learning, to explain carefully and clearly to society what is required and to insist upon getting these necessary teaching conditions.

It is a part of American educational theory that the school experience of the American child should be made as natural as possible. The natural thing is to introduce the teaching of a foreign language at the very beginning of school while the child still retains much of his ability to learn sound patterns. A living language is by definition a spoken language and it is precisely this aspect of language which is best and most easily learned in the earliest grades of the elementary school. There is no danger of confusion with English, for the child has had five or six years in which he has learned to speak English thoroughly. And, of course, there should be no question of teaching the child at this age to read or to write in the foreign language. He shows a readiness for this considerably later, in the third or fourth grade, when he has already learned to read and write in his own language. Likewise the study of grammar comes naturally at a still later period, usually in the seventh and eighth grades, when he is most interested in the grammar of his own language and when it becomes entirely natural to compare the two in a way that permits each to fortify the other. And finally his growing intellectual powers, his increasing curiosity, his more highly developed tastes will be most naturally satisfied as he progresses through the junior and senior high school. Here, having largely mastered the foreign language instrument, he uses it intelligently and maturely in the way that he uses his own language as a vehicle of thought.

The usual objective of foreign language study is the thorough mastery of the language itself, that is, learning to understand, to speak, to read, and to write it. The purpose of acquiring this complex skill is to learn better to understand the foreign people who speak the language, to appreciate their culture and civilization, and to use this better understanding and appreciation as the basis for the building of a more peaceful future. Measured against these objectives, foreign languages are best begun in the elementary school. Psychological considerations favor beginning foreign languages in the elementary school, for the complex skills required to master them are best learned at this age level.

Sociological reasons also favor an early beginning, since children are keenly interested in the picturesque aspects of a foreign culture, readily form habits of interracial sympathy and understanding, and are proud to collaborate with their elders in building world peace. Practical reasons suggest the same answer, for a child who begins early to learn a foreign language can learn to speak it without accent and master it in its complex aspects in a way which is difficult for an adolescent. When he grows into adolescence and maturity, he will find that he has at his disposal an instrument which will greatly increase his vocational possibilities. And finally there are cultural reasons for advocating the beginning of a second language in elementary schools. The task of learning a foreign language, which is a chore for an adolescent or a mature person, is no chore for a child. Childhood is the best time to acquire this instrument, which during adolescence and maturity is invaluable in improving one's general education. He then has two languages at his disposal, a greatly widened cultural horizon, and the possibility of penetrating more deeply into his own and a foreign culture by virtue of his ability to compare the two.

Being an eminently practical people, Americans have increasingly become aware of the importance of languages in the communication between nations in a rapidly shrinking world. With millions of our soldiers distributed all over the face of the planet and in contact with other peoples, and with thousands of representatives of our government distributed even more widely, it becomes clear that we need to become linguistically much better prepared than we have been in the past. Just this result can be obtained if we begin a second language in the elementary school, proceed logically, and improve the quality of our teaching all the way up and down the line.

# CHAPTER II

## How Do You Start?

Let us suppose there is in a given community a spark of interest in the idea of beginning a language in the elementary school. This interest may be first expressed by a few parents or other members of the community, by one or more teachers, by a guidance officer, by a principal, by a supervisor, by the superintendent of schools, or by one or more members of the school board. The question immediately arises, "How is it to be done and what is the best way to proceed?"

It is remarkable how much the enthusiasm of one person can accomplish. In many instances teachers have offered their services without pay in order to demonstrate the feasibility of teaching a language in the grades. Classroom teachers who feel qualified usually encounter no difficulty in obtaining permission to give language lessons. High school teachers have frequently offered to teach a language in the elementary school, and occasionally they find satisfactions so great that they are prepared to abandon high school teaching in favor of language teaching in the grades. In still other cases parents or professors in nearby colleges or universities have volunteered their services in order to get an experiment started. Let me describe briefly two cases in which individual initiative has resulted in successful programs.

In the first case three French instructors in Phillips Academy, Andover, Massachusetts, generously offered their services for the purpose of teaching French in the three third grades of the Central Elementary School with the informal understanding that if the experiment proved to be successful the school committee would explore ways and means of continuing it and financing it. Each instructor met his particular class four times a week for periods of twenty minutes and initiated them in the conversational use of French. The children were as enthusiastic at the end of the year as at the beginning, the teachers and the principal were most favorably disposed, the parents were delighted, the school committee was satisfied with the results, and there was a great deal of public interest. The experiment could therefore be called most successful. However, this evident success and the enthusiasm of a large segment of the town population were not enough to overcome the hesitation of an economy-minded town meeting, which voted not to appropriate money for a continuation of the language program. Finally the school committee was able to reconcile the two points of view and work out a plan whereby the program could be extended to all four schools in the town without extra expenditure by the simple means of filling vacancies with grade school teachers who were also qualified to teach French.

In Jamestown, New York, a high school teacher of Spanish who was an enthusiast decided to organize and conduct a Spanish workshop. She invited the teachers in all of the elementary schools in town to attend. Most of the schools responded with two or three teachers, the majority of whom had no knowledge of Spanish. All the grades from kindergarten through the sixth were represented. The high school teacher then taught them simple conversations, games, and songs, and after the ear had been accustomed to this material she furnished them with mimeographed copies of the text and with records which she herself had cut. The amount of vocabulary was by intention very limited. Teachers then carried what they had learned into the classroom and in turn taught it to the children. The high school teacher was surprised by what her students, the teachers, were able to do. In order to interpret the program to the community she herself addressed assemblies and club meetings in the schools. The teachers are enthusiastic about the program; the principals are favorably disposed; many parents have written letters of appreciation; and the children are delighted. It has proved to be not only a worthwhile extra activity for the gifted child but in some cases has been helpful to the slow pupils in building up their sense of achievement. Our teacher reports, "We have been surprised to find social values emerging that are far more important than the acquisition of a few dozen words of Spanish." Teachers list the following advantages, already noted in a program which began only in October of 1951: (1) Increased reading about Latin America. (2) Higher quality of books taken from the library. (3) New pride of foreign-background children in the knowledge of their own languages. (4) New respect for foreign children. (5) Personality development of some slow pupils who find that they can learn Spanish. (6) Enrichment for gifted children. Despite the obvious success of this program it is not certain that the community as yet is willing to support it financially. Much spadework must be done to inform the general public about these new programs.

There have been many other examples of admirable individual initiative, such as the programs of Louisiana[1] and Lincoln, Nebraska. Evaluations have shown that the great majority of these have given good results. And yet some successful programs have languished and died for lack of support. It is significant that those projects show the greatest vitality which enlist the interest and participation of all the people concerned. Let us therefore explore the origins of three such programs.

The story of the beginnings of the program of conversational Spanish in the elementary schools of Los Angeles as told by Mrs. Grace M. Dreier, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, and Mrs. Ruth R.Ginsburg, Supervisor of Foreign Languages, at the National Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in the American Schools held in Washington on January 15 and 16, 1953, makes inspiring reading.[2] On June 14, 1943, after a great deal of discussion and exploration, Dr. Vierling Kersey, Superintendent of Schools in Los Angeles, announced to all school administrators and supervisors that the teaching of Spanish would begin in the elementary schools of the city in the following school year. It was unanimously agreed that this program should serve all children from the kindergarten through the sixth grade. Since it was difficult if not impossible on such short notice to find fully qualified teachers in sufficient numbers, "it was recognized that the program must be predicated upon the principle of children and teachers learning together." The staff members of the Elementary Curriculum Section together with the teachers mobilized and prepared, during that summer and fall, by means of a Mexican workshop and vigorous recruitment, the organization of a city-wide Spanish program which is truly impressive. The importance of preparing the school system and general public in advance was recognized. "The general purposes, specific objectives, methods and materials of instruction, would be presented by a symposium before all teachers, supervisors, and administrators of each school level." Thanks to this careful presentation, public interest was widespread. Having now completed their first decade, the administrators of the program are conscious of problems still to be solved, but are nevertheless satisfied that the program has yielded most gratifying results and has acquired permanent status.

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[1] See Hosea Phillips, "Foreign Languages in the Grades in Louisiana," in *The French Review*, vol. 13 (October 1939), pp. 71 ff.; "French in the Public Elementary Schools in Louisiana," abstract of a paper read by Professor Theriot, Southwestern Institute, Lafayette, Louisiana, at the annual meeting of the Modern Language Association, December 28, 1939, in *The French Review*, vol. 13 (February 1940), pp. 344-346; Elia Boudreaux, "Some Aims and Methods in Teaching French in the Elementary Schools in Louisiana," in *The Modern Language Journal*, vol. 24 (March 1940), pp. 427-430; and Mabel Collette and Thomas R. Landry, *French Can Enrich Your Elementary School Program.* (A progress report on the teaching of conversational French in several Louisiana school systems.) Bulletin no. 729. Directed by J. B. Robertson, Director of Elementary and Secondary Education. Issued by Shelby M. Jackson, State Superintendent, Baton Rouge, February 1952.

[2] This report and all other reports coming out of the Washington Conference are available upon request to the Division of International Education, U. S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington 25, D.C.

The oldest elementary language program in the country grew out of a happy collaboration between school officials and a group of women from the Women's City Club of Cleveland, the story of which was told at the National Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Schools by Dr. Émile B. de Sauzé, formerly Director of Foreign Languages in the Cleveland Public Schools,[3] and Mrs. Dorothy E. Norris, Supervisor of Major Work Classes, Cleveland Board of Education.[4] Intimately related to the enrichment provided for gifted children in the major work program of the Cleveland Schools, French instruction has been a permanent fixture from grade one through grade six for over thirty years, and it is now felt that any attempt to yield to the impulse of economy and to eliminate it from the school curriculum would meet with overwhelming resistance from parents. Building on an excellent aural-oral foundation, most of those who have had French in the elementary school elect to continue it in junior high school. Many also carry their French into senior high school. Their preparation is so sound and their proficiency with the spoken language so great that if they go on to college they are able to take the most advanced courses conducted in French.

The French experiment which began in September, 1952, in the second grade of the Jacob L. Devers School of York, Pennsylvania, grew out of an education workshop. One section of this workshop set for itself the problem of human relations and before long reached the conclusion that human relations involve international as well as national and local relations. This immediately brought the question of language into focus. As the committee members studied the question of language learning, they discovered a growing interest in various parts of the country in introducing languages into the elementary school. They sent for information and materials, such as guides, handbooks, and courses of study. A generous school board financed the attendance of representatives at various school meetings and conferences where this question was discussed. There was a great deal of interest on the part of the townspeople. A canvass was made of the community members who had a speaking knowledge of foreign languages. Teachers were asked whether they would be interested in teaching a language and whether they had the necessary qualifications. There was, to be sure, a certain amount of skepticism. Could young children learn a second language without harmful effect on their English? What were the essential conditions of success in such an undertaking? What were the financial implications and would the costs be justified by the results? At this point, it was decided to invite an educator in one of the neighboring universities to come and give his opinion. The meeting was admirably representative. It was attended by the superintendent of schools, by a member of the school board, by the supervisor of elementary instruction, by the chairman of the workshop, by the head of the high school language department, by the prospective language teacher, and by a parent. The whole problem was discussed freely and the visitor was interrogated closely. As a result it was decided to start a small experiment involving one or two classes in one of the elementary schools. Not only did the experiment produce excellent results in the classroom but the teacher and the administrative officers took care to inform the general public adequately through talks at PTA meetings, class demonstrations before various groups, and radio programs. As a result it was decided to expand the program, to preserve its experimental nature, and to continue the experiment long enough to get a definitive answer based on an abundance of data.

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[3] "How the Administrative Problems Connected with Modern Language Instruction in Elementary Schools Were Solved in Cleveland."

[4] "Foreign Languages for the Gifted in the Cleveland Elementary Schools."

These few examples serve to point up the general principles. It is important to proceed slowly, for not only must the people concerned be fully convinced of the usefulness of the experiment but certain conditions necessary for success must exist, such as the availability of qualified teachers, an assurance of continuity from grade to grade, and the wholehearted support of the community. It is often better to take a whole year to explore all aspects of the question, as did the York workshop, than to start on a shoestring and find that the necessary interest and support of the community are lacking. Some teachers, as for example professors in the University of Nebraska, offer classes on a voluntary basis on Saturday mornings to see whether the community is sufficiently interested to request regular language instruction in the elementary school. In educating the general public it has been found that the experience of workshops and actual demonstrations carry much more conviction than any amount of verbal description. Films, suchas the Los Angeles film depicting an actual classroom scene, and filmstrips, such as the set prepared by the Cleveland Board of Education, do much to show what can be accomplished when it is impossible to give an actual demonstration. Educators, citizens, and officials who have not thought about the matter have a right to be thoroughly informed. Children will be universally interested anyway, if the teaching methods are sound. Parents will vote almost one hundred per cent for the continuation of programs and feel that the social and cultural benefits far outweigh the cost. But school boards and boards of finance are by nature conservative, as they should be. They have been conditioned by so many requests representing special narrow interests that they may be inclined to dismiss a language proposal as a special plea. They are also accustomed to the protests that arise if they propose an increase in the tax rate. School boards therefore require a long time before committing themselves to the idea of languages in the elementary school and they should not be expected to endorse the plan until they are thoroughly convinced of the support of a majority of the citizens.

Once it is decided to teach a foreign language in the elementary school, it would be well, in addition to outlining the particular objectives and methods, to make the project as much as possible experimental. An accompanying workshop participated in by teachers who actually give instruction, by representatives of teacher-education institutions, and by interested parents or members of the community could help to record actual results and point the way to future improvements.

# CHAPTER III

## What Should Be the Second Language?

Persons who have had little or no experience with foreign languages find this a very baffling question. They feel perplexed before the five official languages of the United Nations and even more helpless when they consider how many additional and exotic tongues become necessary in view of the world-wide activities of American citizens, both official and unofficial. The most natural thing is to fall back on the wish that English become the world language. Following this wish they point out that English is the most widely used second language and is spoken by more people in the world (250 million) than any other language except Chinese (450 million). English does, to be sure, occupy a privileged position, but it is a far cry from this situation to one in which English would be voluntarily and gratefully accepted by all nationalities as the official world language. And indeed we should be the last to press for such a result. To every nationality its language represents the precious vehicle of its culture; and just as we should like to have others respect our cultural heritage, so we must recognize and respect the language and cultural heritage of other peoples. The principle of give and take which works between individuals is just as important in relations between nations although here it enjoys the somewhat more pompous name of reciprocity. Let us therefore renounce the tempting wish to see English become an international language. If English continues to be spoken by an increasing number of people, it must be only because they find it advantageous voluntarily to learn our language.

Since English cannot then within the foreseeable future become the international language and since no other language has a better chance to acquire this position, some people, conceding the desirability and even the necessity of communicating with other peoples, next suggest the possibility of a simple artificial language. Quite plausibly they point out that such a language will not have any of the handicaps of a national language. It will belong to all equally and to none particularly. Such a language, which might perhaps more properly be called a code since it would not be identified with the cultural heritage of any of its speakers and would therefore not enjoy any of the rich and special connotations which a real language enjoys, could conceivably come into being one day. It has been proposed to UNESCO time and again and has been often considered and abandoned as a utopian and unrealistic solution to the problem of international communication. One can understand the reason for this if one considers the essential difference between a language and a code. A code is a means of communicating essential meaning, perhaps we should say bare meaning, without any of the usual human overtones or undertones. In its form and by its nature it is characteristic of no one type of individual and of no single nationality. One of the essential characteristics of a language, on the other hand, is that it is the expression of a group of individuals closely knit by a common culture. An Englishman would presumably in time come to express himself in an artificial language differently from a Frenchman or a Brazilian or a Chinese. The code might take on some of the vitality of a language and evolve in different directions on the tongues of different nationalities. Lest it evolve to the point where different nationalities end by not understanding one another accurately, it would be necessary to establish a kind of international academy to regulate the code. Thus, although it is not inconceivable that an international code may one day facilitate dispassionate international communication, there is no present prospect of it. There is then no other way to deal with people of other nationalities in a friendly and neighborly fashion than to learn their languages as they are learning ours.

Which brings us back to our starting point. What language should our children learn in the public elementary school? In order to consider this question, which we cannot answer categorically, let us study some of the important criteria for judgment. The already considerable experience that we have had in international organization gives us some help. Here we note that many international conferences are conducted in two languages, English and French. This suggests that the most important second language for international diplomatic communication is French. In addition we note that France lies at a few hours' distance from us, virtually on our eastern border, and that our northern neighbor, Canada, speaks French officially as well as English.

Within our own borders, in every New England state and in Louisiana especially, there are many communities in which French is the native speech of a majority of the population. In many communities in Louisiana the introduction of French into elementary schools has given pride and self-respect to children who formerly were not permitted to speak French in and around school. Furthermore French is spoken natively in many parts of the world: in Haiti, Martinique, Guadeloupe, in the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon - off Newfoundland - and in French Guiana in our hemisphere. It is spoken in French Morocco and French Equatorial Africa, in parts of India, in Madagascar, and in Indochina, and in the New Caledonia Islands in the Pacific. French is the language of some 75 million people. It has provided about one third of the stock of our English language and therefore is one of the most important sources of our own linguistic culture. Consequently French has compelling claims to the title of second language.

Of the other official languages of the United Nations - Spanish, Russian, and Chinese - Spanish is spoken by the smallest number of people (120 million), but it has real international importance by virtue of its broad geographical distribution. It is the language of Spain, Spanish Morocco, the Balearic Islands, and of most of the countries of Central and South America and of the West Indies. Spanish is spoken by some of our closest neighbors and is in fact spoken by well over two million of our citizens. As with French in Louisiana, the introduction of Spanish into the elementary schools in El Paso, Corpus Christi, Brownsville, and many other Texan communities; in Carlsbad and other towns of New Mexico; in Tucson, Arizona; in San Diego and Los Angeles, among other places in California, has had the effect of raising thousands of our fellow Americans of foreign origin to first-class citizenship. It is therefore natural that we should in the schools of many parts of our country give a prominent place to Spanish.

In structure and vocabulary English is a Germanic language. Most of the commonest words we use are of Germanic origin and text counts show that our writers use from seventy per cent (Macaulay) to ninety-four per cent (King James Bible) native Germanic vocabulary. This is true despite the fact that only about twenty per cent of the words listed in a dictionary are of Germanic origin. We have among us millions of descendants of those Germans who in the last century sought refuge on our shores from political oppression and social and economic disorders in Germany. Like many another immigrant group they have contributed notably to our national culture. During the last three decades of the last century and the first two of the present, the heavy German population in such cities as Baltimore, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Indianapolis, and Milwaukee tried to keep their cultural heritage alive by introducing German into the schools, elementary and secondary. In this way they also enlarged the cultural horizons of many non-German Americans. The First World War brought these programs to a sudden and unseemly end and political events also account for the fact that German is not now a serious contender with French and Spanish in our schools nor one of the official languages of the United Nations. Our hope is that Germany will win a place among peace-loving nations and that she will thus regain some of her lost importance. Let us hope also that the German element in our population will take the initiative in bringing about the reintroduction of German into the elementary schools of our country.

Russian, which is spoken by about 160 million people, has achieved an important place, particularly in our colleges and universities. I am not aware that it has yet been introduced into our elementary and secondary schools. The question may very well be raised whether this is as it should be. Russia seems destined for a long time to play an important role in the world. Whether our relations with Russia are tense or friendly, a much larger segment of our population should be prepared to use Russian. It therefore seems entitled to a place in the new curriculum of our schools, which we shall have to revise continuously in the direction of greater efficiency and rationality.

Much of our linguistic, as well as of our political and economic, thinking has been confined to the West. The fact that Chinese, one of the five official languages of the United Nations, is spoken by nearly a quarter of the world's population, should make us realize the present and future importance of the East. The agricultural and industrial, and indeed the military, potential of China is tremendous. We shall have to deal with these unpredictable forces and hope to be able to do so in a peace-seeking and neighborly fashion.

It is pertinent here to cite the results of a questionnaire sent to parents at the conclusion of a little experiment in the teaching of French in two elementary schools in New Haven during the summer of 1952[1]. The parents were asked what language they would prefer to see introduced into the schools. Of fifty-seven who answered, twenty preferred French, twelve Italian, nine Spanish, nine German, two Russian, one Chinese, and four expressed no preference.

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[1] See my article "Toward World Understanding; a Language Experiment in the New Haven Summer Training Schools," in *School and Society*, vol. 76 (November 1, 1952), pp. 273-277.

Nor are these official international languages the only ones about which we should be thinking. We have millions of Americans in the armed forces, in the government, in business, or simply with itchy feet, who are living or traveling abroad at this very moment. Many of them are trying their best to build good will for America among our neighbors. But how well prepared are they linguistically? Some answers to this query are to be found in the newspapers which appeared on December 29, 1952. This Associated Press story was in part reprinted by the PMLA of March, 1953, in connection with the Foreign Language Program and under the heading of U. S. IN WONDERLAND.

> ....Until the first American trained especially for Indonesian duty was assigned to the Embassy in 1949, all translating was done by natives. To please their employers, they interpreted everything to sound rosy, pro-American. But when American area and language experts began to read Indonesian newspapers and attend sessions of the National Legislature, the Embassy learned that strong Communist-inspired anti-American feeling was sweeping the country. Now [the Ambassador] wants as many area and language men in Indonesia as he can get... but it will be years before this country is well supplied with them.
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> State Department officials, at their most optimistic, estimate the Department has only half the area and language experts which it considers a minimum need...If the next Communist push comes [in Southeast Asia], the State Department's foreign service will have at its disposal only two Thai specialists, one Burmese, one Viet-Namese, six Indonesians.
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> Congress established the Foreign Service Institute in the Department in 1946 to give general training to diplomats and then to educate some as area and language specialists....Only volunteers are given the area training....Not many volunteer for training on the area where they are most needed --Asia....The Institute has only one man in training as a Southeast Asia specialist--for Indonesia. The foreign service has only thirteen area specialists

> for India, Pakistan, Nepal, and Ceylon. They speak no Hindustani, although there are at least thirteen other major languages in the area. Chester Bowles, the [former] Ambassador,....says the United States has been getting too much of its information from the British at cocktail parties....
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> In the Moslem world the foreign service has only fifteen Arabic specialists, compared with an estimated need for forty-three. Only six are in training. Yet that is far better than it used to be. One career diplomat recalls that in 1946 the State Department did not have one officer who could read an Arabic newspaper....To find out what Islam was saying in its newspapers, the diplomats had to mail them home to the Library of Congress for translation.
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> For Iran the foreign service has four language and area specialists and needs eight. None is in training. Luther Evans, Librarian of Congress, [now Director-General of UNESCO] says that if this country had had more Iranian specialists, or had listened to those that it had, the current crisis there might conceivably have been avoided....

No one would be so visionary as to suggest the introduction of Hindustani or Arabic or Indonesian or Burmese into the elementary school curriculum, but the fact remains that if these so-called "funny" languages are to be studied by numbers of competent people adequate to permit us to carry out our international neighborly commitments,[1] we shall have to create a language consciousness from the beginning of the elementary school on. We must not indulge in the reckless reasoning which contends that because the majority of our youngsters are not destined to become linguists we should deprive the small but invaluable minority who may wish to become language and area specialists of the opportunity to do so. The future ambassador of good will may by virtue of his intelligent and good-neighborly operation in some future Point Four program convert hostility into friendliness toward America and the Free World. He may be one out of a hundred of our present elementary school children or one out of a thousand or one out of a million. His ability to speak with sympathy and warmth one of the exotic tongues may depend upon his getting an opportunity to start French or Spanish in the first grade. Such essential specializations rest upon a broad base of preparation. In order to achieve such a result, we shall have to learn to modify our thinking considerably, turning the eyes of our imagination into the future rather than allowing ourselves to drift in accordance with our habits and traditions of the past.

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[1] For an account of the teaching of exotic, especially Oriental, languages in the United States, see Mortimer Graves, "Intensive Language Study," in *Far Eastern Survey,* vol. 12 (March 22, 1943), pp. 63-64; "Wartime Instruction in Far Eastern Languages," in *Far Eastern Survey,* vol. 15 (March 27, 1946), pp. 92-93; "All the Foreign Languages," in *Education,* vol. 72, No. 10 (June 1952), pp. 668-674.

If this forward view suggests an approximate order in introducing foreign languages into our schools, there may be good reason in certain localities for introducing languages in a completely different order. Thus we have suggested that the natural tendency to prefer Spanish to French as a second language in the Southwest and West is understandable and proper. It will be remembered that in the New Haven questionnaire Italian came second to French. This is because New Haven has a particularly large Italian population. Should the local cultural situation be taken into account when deciding what language to teach? Indeed it should. The fact that Spanish is being taught from the early grades of the elementary school in certain parts of California, Texas, and New Mexico has already raised thousands of our Spanish-speaking citizens to a new dignity, and this new sense of worth in turn makes them increasingly valuable to the United States. The position of French in Louisiana plays a similar role and in fact this one state has been raided time and again by government agencies looking for experts for their Point Four programs requiring a speaking knowledge of French. Thus our foreign-language-speaking citizens are able to spearhead our efforts to build the future peace by means of friendly international cooperation. In accordance with their particular cultural backgrounds, other communities will want to introduce as a second language German, Italian, Hebrew, Polish, or one of the Scandinavian tongues. It is altogether proper for them to do so, for every foreign-language program contributes to our total international articulateness and to our peace-building potential.

All this will appear revolutionary to our monolinguist to whom it appears that we are showing more concern for the languages and cultures of other peoples than we are for our own. This is of course ridiculous, but he will have to be shown to his own satisfaction that the American of Mexican origin becomes a much better American in proportion as he is allowed freely to respect his own origins and to enjoy responsibly his newly acquired privileges. He will have to be shown that the increasingly important challenge of building the brotherhood of man and of nations cannot possibly be met by a timid isolationism, linguistic or political. The peace of the world cannot be built if we stay in our own back yards. We must take our place in the international arena resolutely, energetically, intelligently, and unselfishly if we would contribute to a peaceful community of nations.

# CHAPTER IV

## At What Age Is It Best to Begin a Second Language?

One way to answer this question--though by no means the best--is to resort to statistics. A colleague of mine, naturally suspicious of this kind of evidence, once remarked jokingly, "If I can't find appropriate figures, I just invent them." Let us not invent them, but let us not attach too great significance to them either. Of fifty-nine language programs which in January, 1953, reported with sufficient data on this point to the National Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Schools, two begin in kindergarten, seven in the first grade, five in the second grade, fourteen in the third grade, sixteen in the fourth grade, ten in the fifth grade, and five in the sixth grade.

As I try to surmise why so many schools begin in or around the fourth grade, it seems to me that there are three main reasons. The first is convenience: Frequently the third, fourth, or fifth grade is chosen because language can be easily integrated with social studies units at this level, because continuity can more easily be assured than if an earlier start is made, or because funds are not available for an earlier start. Secondly, if the question of optimum age is asked at all, the thought is, I believe, that children will by the third, fourth, or fifth grade have become entirely adapted to the school environment and will by the age of eight, nine, or ten have learned English well enough so that there is no danger of interference by the learning of a second language. And thirdly, this is the age at which children show greatest fondness for making up languages.

Teachers who have had experience with teaching a foreign language in the kindergarten or first grade assure us that languages do not in any way complicate the adjustment of the child to school. On the contrary, since the foreign language is one of the subjects which arouses greatest enthusiasm in the child, it may be said quite truthfully that it facilitates the adjustment. Carlos Rivera, who has worked out the first-grade language program - in his Spanish classes in El Paso, Texas--with as great care as anyone, is convinced that the best time to start a foreign language is at the very beginning of school.

The fear that a second language will interfere with English in the early school years rests on a misconception which is due to a confusion between oral and written language. By the time they enter first grade, children have been speaking English for four to five years and have already reached a level of achievement which Professor Ruth G. Strickland describes thus:[1] "The child of five years is speaking about as well as the adults in his environment." According to Madorah E. Smith, an average child of five years has a vocabulary of 2072 words.[2] Her study was made in 1926. According to a more recent study, Mary Katherine Smith, using a test devised by Seashore and Eckerson, estimates that the average total understanding vocabulary of a child in the first grade is 24,000 words.[2] Rinsland estimates in another recent study that the average first-grade child has a written vocabulary of 5099 words.[2] The more recent studies have led to the conclusion that former vocabulary estimates were altogether too conservative. A natural inference to be drawn from these data, it seems to me, is that in the kindergarten or the first grade a child has already secured an oral command of his own language to the point where beginning to speak a second language would involve no difficulty. The reading and writing of the second language is usually not attempted before the third or fourth grade, by which time a firm beginning in the reading and writing of English has been made

Much has been done in the field of child psychology, but there still remains much to do in the specific field of language. What little research has already been done suggests that our future elementary school curricula, if they are to be based on rationality, common sense, and scientific findings, will bear little resemblance to the present curricula. The eminent neurologist and brain surgeon, Dr. Wilder Penfield, Director of the Montreal Neurological Institute, writes:

> The brain of man is distinguished from the brain of all other mammals by its possession of elaborate mechanisms for the function of speech. There are four separate areas of the human cerebral cortex devoted to vocalization. In the dominant hemisphere there are three or four areas that are specialized for the formulation of speech and the acquisition of language.

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1. Ruth G. Strickland, *The Language Arts in the Elementary School*, Boston, D. C . Heath and Co., 1951, p. 78.

2. *Ibid.*, pp. 57, 189, 190-191.

> There is an age when the child has a remarkable capacity to utilize these areas for the learning of a language, *a time when several languages can be learned simultaneously as easily as one language*. [My italics.] Later with the appearance of capacity for reason and abstract thinking, this early ability is largely lost.
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> One who is mindful of the changing physiology of the human brain might marvel at educational curricula. Why should foreign languages (dead or alive) make their appearance long after a boy or girl has lost full capacity for language learning? Why should the efficient methods so long employed at the mother's knee be replaced by the technique of grammar and syntax at a time when the mechanisms of the brain employed in learning speech are relatively inflexible and senescent?[3]

Young children placed in a foreign environment or in a multilingual environment have shown remarkable ability to pick up all the languages to which they are exposed, thus bearing out Dr. Penfield's contention. Many such cases have been cited. Let me mention just one, described by the British psychologist, J.W. Tomb:[4]

> It is a common experience in the district in Bengal in which the writer resides to hear English children of three or four years old who have been born in the country conversing freely at different times with their parents in English, with their *ayahs* (nurses) in Bengali, with the garden-coolies in Santali, and with the house-servants in Hindustani, while their parents have learnt with the aid of a *munshi* (teacher) and much laborious effort just sufficient Hindustani to comprehend what the house-servants are saying (provided they do not speak too quickly) and to issue simple orders to them connected with domestic affairs. It is even not unusual to see English parents in India unable to understand what their servants are saying to them in Hindustani, and being driven in consequence to bring along an English child of four or five years old, if available, to act as interpreter.

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[3] A communication printed in the *Bulletin of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences*, Volume VI, No. 5, February 1953.

[4] "On the Intuitive Capacity of Children to Understand Spoken Language," in the *British Journal of Psychology*, Vol. XVI, Part I (July, 1925), p. 53.

In order to bring the matter nearer home we need only consider the situation in Germany, where thousands of American families now live. A returning soldier told me the following anecdote. An American boy of three or four, seeing another boy of about the same age several houses away, went to play with him. They had been playing together an hour or so, prattling away in German, when they discovered through questions that both were American. Each had taken the other to be German.

This fantastic ability that children have to learn languages is often called a mystery. As E. V. Gatenby remarks:[5]

> It is no mystery at all, but the natural result of children being placed in such conditions that in order to satisfy their many desires they have to learn certain new forms of speech. It seems that children learn not *a* language but language. Halide Edip, the bilingual Turkish novelist, tells us in her memoirs that she had reached the age of twelve before she became aware that she spoke two languages, English and Turkish.

From this kind of evidence Mr. Gatenby draws the following moral. "Let the pupils have a chance. Give them a teacher who knows the language thoroughly and will use it all the time. Let them start learning at the earliest possible age through pleasurable activities, with the minimum of formal teaching and the maximum use of the language in natural situations."

Professor Suzanne K. Langer[6] sheds further light on the origins and psychology of language learning. As she points out, "Voice-play, which as an instinct is lost after infancy, would be perpetuated in a group by the constant stimulation of response, as it is with us when we learn to speak." As we follow the implications of this thought, we can attribute to the infant the capacity to make all the sounds used in any of the 2,796 estimated languages of the world and perhaps even sounds used in none of them. The child makes these sounds in the joy of creative experimentation. But this pleasure needs to be sustained by response. Hence the great majority of sounds, meeting with no response, are gradually discarded and the range of sounds which are practiced narrows to those in the language or languages spoken in a particular place.

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[5] "Popular Fallacies in the Teaching of Foreign Languages," in *English Language Teaching*, Autumn, 1952. Published by the British Council.

[6] In her chapter on "Language" in *Philosophy in a New Key. A Study in the Symbolism of Reason, Rite, and Art.* A Mentor Book, 1948, p. 104.

Professor Emile B. de Sauzé, having observed that children are much more efficient at language learning than adolescents since they can learn to speak without an accent, has designated the period before puberty as "the bilingual period." It would be more accurate to use the term "multilingual". Also it is important not to consider the whole of this period as equally multilingual. This intuitive linguistic power, which has been observed by so many students of language, apparently declines steadily from infancy to adolescence.

The conclusion seems clear. The ideal starting point in school for language learning, if one is to take all possible advantage of children's natural gifts, is kindergarten or the first grade. The well-known and successful Cleveland, Brooklyn, and Los Angeles programs are based on this assumption, as are the programs in El Paso, Carlsbad, Jamestown, and Washington, D. C.

In addition to these psychological considerations--and the social and political advantages mentioned in a preceding chapter -there is another strong argument in favor of beginning a language either in the kindergarten or in the first grade. This is our national and international emergency. We cannot afford to delay the training of linguistically prepared citizens and future leaders. From this point of view the very first year of school is none too soon. It would seem that by adopting this principle educators have the opportunity for once to avoid the accusation "too little and too late."

# CHAPTER V

## Should Languages Be Offered to All or Only to Selected Pupils?

This question is one of the most controversial in the new language movement. A few of the programs, including some of the oldest, are based on the selective principle. The oldest of all, the Cleveland Plan, chooses students with a minimum I. Q. of 115 for an enrichment program that includes a modern language, and students with an I.Q. of 125 or higher for major work in a modern language. The New Britain Plan[1] is based on a similar formula: it selects those pupils who are considered by their teacher to be able to carry an extra load, who are up to date in their work, and who are interested. Other programs, such as those in St. Louis, Oakwood-Dayton (Ohio), and Brooklyn, are also based on the selective idea. There are a number of arguments in favor of this point of view.

(1) The correlation between high I. Q. and language aptitude is high though perhaps not especially significant, for there would be a high correlation between high I.Q. and aptitude in any subject. (2) Some experimentation has been reported which suggests that the better student takes a foreign language very much in his stride, that the average student adds the language without hurting the rest of his work, and that the slow student may be handicapped in his regular work by the extra load of language.[2] However, so many teachers have lately reported cases of slow students showing high aptitude in language as to cast doubt on the validity of earlier reports.[3] (3) It is evident

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[1] See Arthur M. Selvi, "An Experiment Introducing Modern Language Activities in the Elementary School," in *Educational Administration and Supervision*, May 1951, and "Bilingualism for Fuller Citizenship," in *Teacher Education Quarterly*, Winter 1952, pp. 80-86.

[2] See Nicholas Hobbs, "Child Development and Language Learning." A report to the National Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Schools, Washington, D. C., January 15, 1953, p. 5.

[3] As long ago as 1942 Professor Paul F. Angiolillo came to this conclusion. See his "French for the Feeble-Minded: An Experiment," *Modern Language Journal*, vol. 26, no. 4 (April, 1942), pp. 266-271.

that, if apt and ready students only are taken, more can be accomplished in a given time. (4) A stronger argument in favor of this point of view is the fact that we do not now have an adequate supply of fully qualified teachers to take care of a sudden expansion in this field. Is it therefore not better to restrict the initiation of language experiments by making a rather severe selection at the outset? (5) Another argument in favor of the principle of selectivity is that it provides a ready way of enriching the curriculum of the gifted pupils, "the great forgotten ones" of American education. The advocates of this procedure point out that it affords the opportunity of accomplishing two objectives at once: giving language instruction to those who can profit most from it and providing enrichment for those who most need it. (6) Circumstances in some communities may be such that only a selective program can be started. Interest in a second language may be limited to certain families. There may be budgetary restrictions, lack of time in the school program or a lack of qualified teachers. Under these conditions it would be desirable to initiate a program only on a selective basis.

Let us look at the other side.

(1) Many people find the idea of selectivity repugnant in principle. They contend that the application of the democratic principle of giving an equal educational opportunity to all requires that all pupils in a given grade be permitted to have some experience with a second language. Those who argue against selection contend that none should be made before the language is offered but rather after a certain amount of language experience, through a form of natural selection. Certain children who do not profit sufficiently from their class work and tend to lose interest should of course be allowed to discontinue their language study at any time it seems desirable to the teacher, the parent, and the pupil. (2) Such a procedure would eliminate one of the greatest administrative difficulties in the selective process, that of using a consistent and reasonable basis of selection and making it seem right to all parents and all children. (3) Opponents of selection contend, quite correctly, that there is no inevitable correlation between high I. Q. and language aptitude. Thus, for example, there may be greater language readiness among pupils who have had the experience of a foreign language in their homes whether or not they happen to have a high I. Q. Some teachers have also reported a correlation between musical and language aptitudes, but this is a theory which needs to be veri-

fied by research. (4) Pointing out that in the past, knowledge of other languages, particularly French, has been associated with the socially elect, as one of the graceful accomplishments of those who move about the world, these opponents of selection contend that this is not the time for any continuation of the possible snob appeal of foreign language experience, such as might be encouraged by the selective procedure. (5) Admitting that it is important that the gifted among our school children receive greater attention and encouragement, they contend that this should be done from the broad base of total participation. Everyone, they say, should be given the opportunity of beginning a language, and the principle of enrichment rather than selectivity should be used progressively. There is the possibility in this connection of making a distinction after a certain number of years of language experience between those who, while enjoying their language and profiting from it, fail to accomplish as much as the more gifted. In Somerville, New Jersey, for example, the plan calls for making such a distinction at the junior high school level. Thus the less gifted, who are nevertheless capable of getting both pleasure and profit from their language experience, would continue what would be called conversational French or Spanish, while the second group would pursue a course of study which is more firmly grounded in grammar and more challenging in cultural content. (6) Those who believe in an opportunity for all bid us remember that in addition to the direct objective of learning a foreign language there is the indirect but even more important objective of learning to understand and appreciate a foreign people and their culture. This objective can be as readily achieved by slow learners as by fast ones and is equally important for both. (7) An increasing number of teachers report that the addition of a foreign language to the curriculum has the effect of a shot in the arm. It arouses as much enthusiasm as any other subject. In addition, language experience has often proved to be more beneficial to the slow learner than to the fast, for the former has often found success in language, which has encouraged him to renew his efforts in all subjects. Language has therefore not infrequently been the means of salvaging the poorest pupils, who would under the principle of selectivity not have a chance.

Theoretically the better case can be made for giving all pupils an opportunity for language experience. Language should of course not be required, but teachers generally report that almost all parents and pupils choose to have language added to the curriculum if they are given a choice. The principle of equal educational opportunity for all seems to many so basic that they regard the practice of selection, at least at the outset, as unacceptable. The solution which appeals to me is therefore to give all pupils the opportunity to begin a language and to permit them to continue as long as they derive a clear educational benefit. As certain individuals show greater learning power and avidity than their fellows, their program should be enriched. This is easy from the third year on, when the reading and writing begin. When the seventh grade is reached, the survivors should perhaps be divided into two groups, according to the Somerville principle, the one to continue an experience leading to an ever broadening international outlook and the other adding to this a growing mastery of a second language.

# CHAPTER VI

## The Importance of Continuity

One of the principal reasons for the mediocrity which has frequently marked language teaching in the past is the fact that there has not been adequate continuity. Not only has language not been started early enough, during the favorable language-learning period of childhood, but it has not been continued long enough to permit the pupil to acquire an adequate knowledge of a foreign language. And in addition many pupils who have started a language in the ninth or tenth grade have discontinued it at the end of the tenth or eleventh grade even though they were planning to go on to college. Thus they suffered a lapse of one or two years, which was enough to let them forget much of what they had learned. Upon entering college and encountering the requirement of a modern foreign language, which is still regarded as a *sine qua non* of a general education, they found that in many cases they had to start anew. This apparent waste of two years has naturally been offensive to them, as it is to educators in general.

It is of first importance, then, before launching a foreign language program in the elementary school, to make sure that there is adequate promise of continuity if the experiment is successful. For pupils who intend to go to college and who start a foreign language in the ninth or tenth grade *there should be provision for adequate continuation of language study in the eleventh and twelfth grades*. As we have noted earlier, the acquiring of language skills is by no means the simple matter that it is often considered to be by those not directly involved in language teaching. It takes slow, patient, cumulative experience and practice. It can not be unduly hurried without endangering seriously the expected benefits.

Communities intending to experiment with foreign languages should, before they begin, think through the requirements of a continuous program. To help them in this planning there is the record of programs which are no longer experimental, such as those of Cleveland, Brooklyn, Los Angeles, and San Diego. Others, while still experimental, have nevertheless provided invaluable experience and led to certain conclusions. Such are, for example, the Somerville, St. Louis, Jamestown, Seattle, Washington, Louisiana, New Mexico, and various Texas programs. Invaluable also is the outline of an ideal ten-year course by James H. Grew.[1] Dr. Grew is in favor of beginning in the third grade, feeling that children need two years to become thoroughly accustomed to the school environment, and he would divide the language experience into three stages, grades III, IV, V, and VI; grades VII, VIII, and IX; and grades X, XI, and XII.

Instead of summarizing Dr. Grew's outline, which is easily accessible, let me sketch a variant of my own. The main difference between Dr. Grew's proposal and mine is that he advocates beginning in the third grade and I advocate beginning in the kindergarten or first grade. As I have already explained, a start in the third grade represents a loss of the two school years which are most valuable for the effective learning of a foreign language. The earlier the start, the better the chance of acquiring a native accent and the more natural the absorption of a new language.

I should divide my ideal twelve-year course into four parts. The first extends from kindergarten or the first grade through the third, the second carries through the sixth, the third through the ninth, and the fourth through the twelfth.

Nearly everyone is agreed that the initial contact of the second language should be exclusively aural and oral.[2] The pupils are provided with no texts though the teacher uses a prepared course of study, his own or one commonly used in other systems. The whole first year or first two years should be devoted to training the ear and vocal organs. For this purpose it is desirable that the children have contact with the language every day, if possible, but for short, fifteen-minute periods. The direct aural-oral method continues in the second and third grades, as it does throughout, but the pupils can be encouraged to keep notebooks in which to paste cutouts or draw objects or scenes which have been spoken of in class.

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[1] "A French Course for the Modern World," in *The French Review*, vol. 26, no. 3 (January 1953), pp 210-215.

[2] As the easiest way to distinguish in conversation between these two terms I suggest the acceptance of the distinction made by Webster's Dictionary: aural = ôʹrăl; oral = ōʹrăl.

In the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades the aural-oral emphasis continues of course, but the children will also be eager to read and write. This readiness should be satisfied by using the blackboards, notebooks, filmstrip or other projections, and even simple texts. Frequent contact with the language is still important and the period may be lengthened to twenty or thirty minutes. By the end of the sixth grade the sound patterns can be thoroughly mastered. The main points of grammar and usage will have become automatic through constant practice. And the written symbols will have been connected reasonably well with the sound patterns.

We find the twelve-year-old in the seventh grade using his powers of abstract reasoning more and more. He analyzes, compares, asks how phenomena come to be, why one says things in a certain way. This curiosity should by all means be encouraged and satisfied. The objectives of this third stage, then, are the mastery of the structure of the language, while of course continuing to hear and speak the language constantly; the reading of more interesting and challenging texts; and more intensive practice in writing. By the end of the ninth grade the average pupil should be able to understand nontechnical language easily, speak correctly and fluently on general subjects, read simple prose with fair speed and nearly complete comprehension, and write easily and fairly correctly on general subjects. At this point the average pupil will possess, in addition to a thorough aural and oral grounding in the language, a theoretical knowledge and a skill in reading and writing comparable to that which can be gained in at least two years of a good high school course. In reality this kind of comparison should not be made, for the theoretical knowledge of a language as measured by a conventional examination makes little sense unless it is built on the aural and oral skills which are essential to the mastery of a living language.

The tenth-grader, having mastered at least the elements of a complex skill, is ready to perfect his mastery and to reap more fully the rewards of his course of study. His reading hitherto has been selected for its appropriateness to his age level. He is now capable of a more methodical exploration of the culture and civilization of the people whose language he has been studying. To be sure, he has already learned much about these people and their culture, but he may now be impatient to tie it all together in a chronological survey which will include elements of geography, history, economics, politics, science, art, literature, and philosophy. Such a course, extending over two or three years and conducted in a foreign language, should by no means be a stuffy, academic course aimed at preparing specialists; it should be a live and varied course of general educational value. It should not lose sight of the individual pupil and his special interests. It should provide all sorts of opportunity for comparison: between Americans and foreigners, between our ways and those of others, between the past and the present. Thus the pupil will be put in direct contact with his contemporary world and in such a way as to transcend the provincialism of which we have so often been accused.

Educators have asked what would happen to language study in college if such a twelve-year course were followed. The result would of course be to make college work possible in college. As it is now, most language departments spend a great deal of their time doing elementary and intermediate work in a second language. It would be much more fitting to be able to carry on advanced work of university grade. But the justification of the twelve-year course is not that it prepares for college; instead it carries its own justification all along the way. The work of each year and each stage should yield direct rewards in the satisfaction the children feel in their accomplishments, in the visible progress they make in learning a living, spoken language, and in their growing understanding of another people's culture.

Throughout this discussion we have considered the average student. The slower student would obviously not achieve so much and might even lose interest and drop out, though the ideal would be to sustain his interest no matter how modest his progress. The faster student could likewise learn much more than the average, but there should be no pedagogical problem in his case, for such a course as we have spoken of can be enriched indefinitely.

The pupil, challenged constantly and always aware of the strides he is making, would have a feeling of great satisfaction. The teacher would also feel gratified to know that he is teaching according to methods which are natural, that the objectives are attainable and worth-while, and that teacher and pupil are pulling together. But the success of the program presupposes the most skillful and most stimulating kind of teaching throughout.

# CHAPTER VII

## Fitting a Foreign Language into the Curriculum

One of the first questions asked by professional educators when the subject of languages in the elementary school is discussed is this: Should they be considered as a part of the so-called "common learnings?" To contend, as I do, that foreign languages should be so considered seems at first glance absurd, but I believe it can be shown to be altogether logical and natural. The concept represented by the term "language arts" is broader than that of the older term "English" and "language." If the concept were expanded still further, it could very naturally include a second language as well as English. The moment social studies are considered broad enough to include international relations, foreign languages become a natural part of this common learning. If numbers, art, music, and science are considered common learnings, so should a foreign language: for they *all* provide a medium of international communication. And if the criterion of need is invoked, it can be easily demonstrated that foreign languages are as necessary to our survival in a contracting world as any of the other common learnings.

Educational theory has already, by enlarging the concept of language study, prepared the way for the recognition of foreign language study as one of the language arts. This term includes the art of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in our own language; but we have already seen that the relationship between English and other languages is very close. For example, if our children are to appreciate their own language fully, we should make them aware that English is composed, to the extent of about one half, of words which come from Latin, either directly or through French. We should mention that about five per cent of our vocabulary comes from various other languages, and that the rest of our vocabulary, as well as the structure of our language, is of Germanic origin. In the language of our Southwest the Spanish element is conspicuous. It is therefore natural to build up these relationships, as Professor Kaulfers proposes.[1] Teachers have frequently remarked that an interest in a foreign language has stimulated greater interest in English on the part of the elementary school children. Through a study of the language and culture of others we can better understand, appreciate, and take pride in our own. Goethe's dictum, "A man who has no acquaintance with foreign languages knows nothing of his own," is an extreme statement of this truth.

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[1] Walter V. Kaulfers, *Modern Languages for Modern Schools*, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1942; and Walter V. Kaulfers, Grayson N. Kefauver, and

Not only is the relation close and natural between the language arts and the foreign language, but there is an equally obvious field for fruitful cooperation between the foreign languages and the social studies. In fact, a foreign language, especially as taught in Los Angeles, in San Diego, in Carlsbad, in El Paso, and other programs of the Southwest, in Louisiana, and in Jamestown, New York, *is* a social study. The teacher of social studies cannot very well avoid the subject of our international relations. It has become increasingly obvious that in order to be a good American citizen in our century one has to be international-minded and in order to be international-minded one should know at least one foreign people through their language. This is a fundamental attitude which should be cultivated from the very beginning, not only in the home but in the school. Our educators have already done much to create such an attitude, particularly in those parts of the country where our contact with another culture is closest. In these areas a concern for social problems has influenced educational theory, and language has become a vital part of social studies.

There are other fields for natural and fruitful integration. For example, there are endless possibilities in arithmetic. In teaching a foreign language in the lower grades of the elementary school, teachers have discovered the fascination exerted by numbers. Children ask to be taught the numbers in the new language and they often show such enthusiasm for counting and manipulating numbers that they learn with amazing rapidity. Teachers have even discovered that certain operations, such as telling time, have in some cases been more rapidly learned in the foreign language than in English because of the stimulation exerted by the new sounds. Arithmetic provides a fine opportunity for the foreign language teacher to review in the second language the operations which have been explained by the classroom teacher.

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Holland D. Roberts, *eds.*, *Foreign Languages and Cultures in American Education*, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1942.

And the latter should not be disconcerted if the children inject a bit of French or Spanish into the arithmetic lessons. What is said of arithmetic can also be said of science, in the schools where science is taught in the grades.

Integration is most natural of all in the fields of art and music, both of which are international and typical of a people's folkways. Songs, dances, art displays, pageants are all used by language teachers in close cooperation with the teachers of art and music. What better way to stress the community of nations and peoples than through art and music?

The desirable effort to integrate language experience with the other parts of the elementary school curriculum not only leads to a richer and better rounded presentation of the language and foreign culture which are being studied, but it also enriches and adds interest to the entire school program. Stories may be selected from the foreign people's history on the basis of their analogy with similar events in our own history. Excerpts both in prose and in verse, selected for their literary worth and for their suitability to a certain age level, can also enrich the growing child's sensitiveness to literature, his own and that of other nations. The use of puppets, dramatic skits, pageants, musical presentations, and art exhibits tends to lend variety, increase interest, and add unusual possibilities for widening and deepening the language experience and the total educational experience of children.

It appears to me therefore that a true evaluation of the importance of foreign languages in the elementary school recognizes them to be an essential part of what are now called the common learnings.

# CHAPTER VIII

## Who Should Teach Languages?

Should a foreign language be taught by an American or a native speaker, by a specialist going from room to room and perhaps from school to school, or by the regular classroom teacher? These questions, important as they are, are secondary. Language teachers should be qualified, but their qualifications should not be stated in these terms. Let us then try to define what may be reasonably expected of a teacher of foreign languages in the elementary school.

(1) In order to teach satisfactorily, a teacher should be well acquainted with the prevailing philosophy and practice in the American elementary school.

(2) He must be genuinely fond of and effective with children so as to be able to arouse and maintain their interest and enthusiasm.

(3) He should be a broadly educated, resourceful, and enthusiastic person.

(4) He should possess a thorough knowledge of, skill in, and enthusiasm for the language or languages that he proposes to teach, together with a knowledge of the history, civilization, and culture of the country or area involved.

Those who are closest to the elementary school are of course most insistent upon the first of the qualifications listed above, as they properly should be. We have reason to be proud of the advances that have been made in the elementary field and any change that is contemplated should respect the basic theory and methods which have been found to be good. The language teacher who is intimately acquainted with the philosophy which guides elementary school practice is in the best position to relate the language experience to the rest of the program. It is not necessary to infer from this statement that all language teaching in the elementary school must be done by regular classroom teachers. There have been many "specialists" who have taught languages in the elementary grades with success. Generally speaking, however, the specialized language teacher needs some retraining before undertaking to teach in the elementary school. It is difficult for him to handle the little ones.

Effectiveness with children depends partly upon the temperament of the teacher, but it can also be assisted by a sound preparation in educational psychology with emphasis on child growth and development, and by training in a variety of techniques and practices.

The most important of these qualifications is the one that can least well be taught. Character, personality, and intelligence can be cultivated by education, but they are in large part what one is born with and inherits from one's family and environment. If one is not basically endowed with the proper faculties, no amount of education - general, specialized, or professional - will ever do very much to form a well qualified teacher. And yet if one is endowed with these faculties, they must still be carefully cultivated or else they will fall into disuse. The preparation of really good teachers therefore depends first upon a selection of promising candidates and then upon a vital and thorough general education. Personal and intellectual stature and a broad general education are sometimes considered less important for the elementary school teacher than for the high school or college teacher. In my opinion, this is a serious mistake. Whether teaching a child, an adolescent, or a grown-up, a teacher is dealing with a human being on whom he may have a deep and lasting influence and he needs therefore to have as broad a grasp as possible of the humanities. A child in the elementary school, who is in what Whitehead calls the "age of romance," has an almost unlimited sensitiveness and imagination; his teacher should therefore be the kind of person who holds before him a lofty vision of life, who is infinitely resourceful in discovering and developing his extraordinary capacities, and who is skillful in stirring his curiosity and arousing his imagination. The language teacher in the elementary school must therefore take his place beside the other elementary school teachers in meeting the highest possible human and intellectual standards.

The most difficult requirement of all is the last, the thorough knowledge of the new language and the people who speak it. We have noted that young children placed in a foreign environment will absorb and reproduce without accent the language or languages of this environment. This faculty, almost magical in preschool years, continues throughout childhood but declines steadily. By adolescence it is likely to be almost completely superseded by the increased use of the analytical faculty.[1] Since young children learn so readily by imitation and are capable of imitating so perfectly, it is important that they have as good a model as possible to imitate. If the teacher is to serve as the model, he should have a native or near-native accent in the language which he teaches. It is not sufficient for him to "know" a language theoretically, that is, to be well versed in the grammar of the language. He should be able to feel the language and to live or enact the language. This means that the sounds must be accurate and the sound patterns and the meaning patterns must be natural and instinctive. In fact it means that the teacher must not only talk like a native speaker, but that he must act and in a sense think and feel like one. This will seem to many like setting impossibly high standards. Let us say rather it is an attempt to define the ideal of language teaching. If our aim is really to have our children *learn* a language -- as distinct from learning *about* a language -- then we have no choice. A language is by definition that which is spoken by a native. In principle, therefore, the only proper model, as the linguists have contended,[2] is a native. In practice, however, a nonnative speaker who has already learned a language so perfectly from a native as to give almost the same impression is completely acceptable. American teachers should not be considered ineligible because they are not native speakers of the language they teach. Standards should be set high; if the American teacher meets them he should be accepted without reservation. These are hard conditions for Americans to meet, but a high degree of language proficiency and a familiarity with the cultural background are perfectly possible attainments and are likely to become easier and easier as language is begun earlier in the schools.

What about the foreign teacher? In the first place, many states have laws against the appointment of foreign teachers. So long as these laws stand, the supply of teachers in these states will be restricted to native Americans. This seems to me a crippling restriction, for we are neglecting one large source of supply of qualified teachers. Even states which are by law permitted to appoint foreign teachers will be well advised to examine under what circumstances they can best help us in our educational program. There is generally no question about the adequate knowledge of the language and the cultural background in the case of an educated foreign teacher, but it is just as important for the foreign teacher as for the American to have a broad general education and to have a creative and enthusiastic personality and that rare adaptability which will enable him to stir the enthusiasm of American children.

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[1] See Frieda Kiefer Merry and Ralph Vickers Merry, *The First Two Decades of Life*. A Revision and Extension of *From Infancy to Adolescence*. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1950, p. 276.

[2] See Mary R. Haas, "The Application of Linguistics to Language Teaching," *Anthropology Today, an Encyclopedic Inventory* (A.L. Kroeber, *Comp.*), Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1953, pp.807-818.

It is equally important that the foreign teacher learn to know the American elementary school, its guiding philosophy, and its prevailing practices, for the educational patterns generally prevalent in Europe differ conspicuously from those in America. In Europe, the teacher's authority is better preserved and more respected than it is in America. Here the teaching and learning operations are generally conducted in an informal atmosphere of collaboration between teacher and pupil. A teacher who is completely out of sympathy with such a philosophy could easily create tensions or lose control of the class.

There is much evidence that a native knowledge of a language is not of itself a sufficient qualification. Many private elementary schools have in the past taught foreign languages, particularly French, and in many cases their efforts have resulted in failure. Some of the graduates of these privileged schools, which have often engaged as teachers untrained native speakers, have been among the most difficult language students to deal with on the secondary level. They have often been found to have a complete block in respect to language. Not only have they not learned the essentials; they have learned thoroughly to dislike the language and the culture it stands for.

We have tried to discuss the traits of a fully qualified teacher in qualitative rather than in quantitative terms. The problem of certifying language teachers for the elementary school has in most states not been dealt with since it is a brand-new field. Certification involves both quantitative and qualitative considerations, but the quantitative are easier to evaluate. A certain number of courses with the proper titles in accredited institutions can easily be credited. Teacher-education institutions and certification agencies must collaborate if the qualitative considerations are to be equally well appraised. In certain states the problem of certifying language teachers for the elementary school has been studied. In Kansas a modification of the certification procedure has been secured and in the State of Washington a general certificate has been instituted, granted by all teacher-training institutions for any grade from one through twelve and accepting foreign language as an "area of concentration" for elementary teaching.

It would be in our national interest to make our laws very flexible in regard to the appointment of foreign teachers, but we should at the same time have very specific safeguards concerning the selection of these teachers. For example, it would seem entirely feasible through our Office of Education and our foreign missions to set up abroad a binational committee, consisting of persons who are thoroughly familiar with our educational patterns and needs, who would select candidates. These candidates should come to America in the spring in order to have ample time to attend a summer orientation workshop and to familiarize themselves thoroughly with the practices of our elementary schools and with our American children. If then they are carefully and sympathetically guided by other teachers and administrators, I believe that they would be able to adapt themselves very quickly to their new situation and could in a short time render invaluable service to our American education. It would be my hope that more and more Americans could also, following a similar process in reverse, become eligible for teaching positions in other countries, where they would teach English. This would in short lead to a very fruitful exchange, which would in itself lay the groundwork of better international relations and a peaceful international community.

There is the danger that, in wishing to set standards high enough, we set them so high as to discourage legitimate enterprise. It is one thing to establish a long-range objective, and it is another to deal with the present situation in realistic fashion. The truth is that we shall for some time have to use the teachers that are now available. Properly motivated, they can greatly improve their competence. In-service workshops can be established for the training of language teachers or for helping them perfect their language competence. Some notable results have already been achieved in this way, in French in Cleveland, and in Spanish in Los Angeles, San Diego, and Jamestown, for example, where techniques are being worked out according to a principle which may solve the problem of teacher shortage. Recognizing that there are not enough qualified language teachers to start the program, the directors of the program in Los Angeles have set an example by operating on the principle that teachers and pupils should learn Spanish together. This is not an abdication of high standards, for the model of the native speaker is to be present in the classroom, not always in the person of the classroom teacher, but sometimes through the medium of tape-recording. The principle of the teacher's learning together with the pupils is very congenial to the philosophy of the American school and in most cases the teacher feels no humiliation whatever in such a situation. He retains his position as guide and as master of ceremonies, but defers to the native speaker on the tape or wire or disc in matters of pronunciation and diction. Such a procedure would enable us in a relatively short time to train a great number of elementary school teachers in in-service or summer workshops or in special sessions abroad.

Let us summarize. What we have said leads us to conclude that, recognizing clearly the nature of language and the psychology of language learning, we should aim to provide teaching of the very highest quality. Fully qualified teachers are scarce but can be prepared by various teacher-education institutions or secured by foreign exchange. In the meantime, in order not to discourage present interest, it is important to explore various ways of training language teachers in workshops and summer sessions both here and abroad in order to begin language programs in communities which are interested. A collaborative effort can help us realize such a program. Such collaboration involves a native speaker of the language who can be multiplied ad infinitum by means of tape, wire, or disc recordings, an interested classroom teacher willing to join the children and guide them in learning a language, and of course a sympathetic school administration and community support. By such means it should be possible to offer to all children in a given grade the opportunity to begin a language and thus respect one of our democratic principles, an equal educational opportunity for all.

# CHAPTER IX

## Languages in the Primary Grades: Principles and Techniques

The earlier a language is taught in the grades the more natural can be the method. The speaker of a foreign language *behaves* differently from us, and this characteristic behavior is absorbed by primary school children through the eyes, through the ears, "through the pores." The training of auditory and vocal organs, of gestures and facial expression, which to grown-ups is a highly complex and elusive process, is to our young pupils literally child's play. And let us remember that children, who are born with an almost unlimited language-learning potential, have not at the age when they begin school developed those great differences in language aptitude which plague adolescents and their teachers.

What then are the principles governing the natural learning of a foreign language? The first - after the proper rapport has been established between teacher and pupils - is the creation of suitable visual impressions. I have suggested that to learn a foreign language is to learn to behave as the foreigner behaves. The eye plays an important part in the language-learning process. The children's eyes are glued on the teacher as he speaks the new language, watching his mouth, his face, his gestures, in short, his whole behavior. The teacher plays a new role before the fascinated eyes of the children, who can't wait to try out in the same role themselves.

If, as in the case of Carlos Rivera in El Paso, the teacher is a native speaker of the language being taught or, let us rather say in this connection, a native actor of it, there is of course no problem; the children merely imitate his total behavior. However, if the teacher is not a native speaker or actor, he must, in order to achieve a similar effect, resort to someone who is. Native speakers can sometimes be invited into the classroom to help enact a scene. It may also be possible to take the class into an environment where the language is spoken natively and where the whole behavior conforms to the language pattern. But there are many communities in which neither of these techniques is feasible. In that case, a third possibility remains: that of showing a motion picture in which the behavior of the foreign people is depicted and their natural speech is heard. It is of course not sufficient merely to run off such a film once or twice. The children must be allowed to observe all the essential patterns and must be given ample opportunity to re-enact them. It goes without saying that such films as we have are still far from adequate. Instructional films tend to be unnatural and other types of films have not as yet been adapted to instructional use. We may, however, confidently look forward to the development of satisfactory language-teaching films, for this need is very apparent.

The eye is useful too in associating sounds with objects, without reference to the written word. The classroom objects lie immediately at hand and can be supplemented by others brought into the classroom by the teacher or by the children. Miniature houses complete with furniture, barnyards filled with animals, and fruit stands are regular classroom props. Still other visual aids are large pictures, preferably in color; charts; maps; and filmstrips or other projections. Lacking other means, the teacher can, however unskillfully, draw on the board or have the children draw on the board pictures of objects or scenes which have been mentioned.

We should not fail to consider in passing the usefulness of the sense of touch and, to a lesser degree, of the senses of smell and taste. To be able to touch or handle the objects that one talks about or to smell flowers or to taste foods on occasion is to give them a full-bodied reality.

The second principle governing the natural learning of a foreign language is the creation of what may be called a "climate of sound." If one is dropped into a foreign environment, one is immediately surrounded by a new and strange climate of sound. Grown-ups who do not know the language are confused and frustrated by this and often fall back on the hope that someone will come to their assistance by speaking English. Children, on the contrary, are intrigued and begin immediately to absorb the foreign sounds. They arrange them almost intuitively in sense patterns and within a few weeks have adapted themselves to the new situation and are beginning to speak the language.

Ideally, the best way to create the new climate of sound is for a teacher who speaks the second language natively to speak nothing but this language. We have noted with what ease a child in a multilingual environment moves from one language to another with speakers of different languages. It is ideal if a child can associate a language with an individual. Carlos Rivera, who describes vividly the techniques that he uses in the first grade,[1] adheres to this principle by speaking only Spanish to the children. In fact, he is presented to the classes as a gentleman "who understands a little English but does not speak it."

Not every school system will be able to create these conditions. If the teacher is not a native speaker of the second language or a close imitator of a native speaker, he should seek the aid of one. In these days of technological advancement this is easy. If a native speaker cannot be present in person, he can be introduced by means of tape, wire, or disc recordings or by means of the sound film. Radio and television are also beginning to be used more widely. In Sweden, English is being taught simultaneously by radio in seven hundred schools. And in Washington, D. C., French and Spanish are being taught on a city-wide basis by means of television. Language lessons by television, intended for adult audiences or children, are already offered in many places. For example, Professor Manuel H. Guerra, of the State University of New York, College for Teachers at Buffalo, began a weekly fifteen-minute program on December 4, 1952, called "Fun to Learn about Latin America," in which he salutes a different country each week, displays its flag, features its local customs and songs, and discusses its history, geography, economy, and population.[2] While there is room for much greater use of these technical aids, to the teacher himself falls most of the task of providing constant examples of how the foreign language is spoken.

There is a third basic principle of successful language teaching in the elementary school and especially in the primary grades. This is the principle of translating as much as possible of the new language into action. Love of action seems to be universal with children. Every action and every situation can be dramatized. Greetings and presentations are actions which can be exploited in various ways. Carlos Rivera tells of the children's delight in presenting their parents when they visited the Spanish classes during National Education Week. All the classroom activities should be both verbalized and acted out, but an imaginative teacher who knows the imitative and creative powers of children will not stop here but will elaborate games and dramatic skits based on ordinary everyday activities, extracting from them their full interest. Children delight in playing the role of teacher or leader and can be called on frequently for this purpose. When the family unit is introduced they play the role of each member of the family, in the living room entertaining company, in the dining room at the table, in the kitchen preparing a meal, in the bathroom getting cleaned up, leaving for work or school, and so on.

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[1] See "The Teaching of Spanish in the First Grades of the El Paso Public Schools," in *Hispania*, vol. 35, No. 4 (November 1952), pp. 452-457, and *A Manual of Materials, Aids, and Techniques for the Teaching of Spanish to English-Speaking Children. First Grade.* Published by the authority of the School Board, The El Paso Public Schools, August 1952, 75 cents.

[2] For a description of this and seven other TV language programs see FL Bulletin No. 5 issued in May 1953 by The Modern Language Association of America, 6 Washington Square North, New York 3, N.Y.

Certainly the use of familiar experiences and everyday activities is the most natural way to introduce a foreign language, but another source of interest is the culture of the people whose language is being studied. How do the foreign children live? What do they do? What are their schools like? Their homes? What are their holidays and how do they celebrate them? What games do they play? What songs do they sing? All this fascinating material can be introduced by the teacher through stories or by means of pictures or movies. The games, songs, and dances can be learned and whole scenes dramatized. In connection with social studies, children in some Spanish classes make pottery and weave baskets and textiles. In this way a beginning is made in the important field of international understanding.

The possibilities for action are numberless. Let me mention a few. Young children like to color pictures, to cut out colored pictures from magazines and paste them in notebooks, to make and dress paper dolls, to draw pictures on the blackboard or in their notebooks, to make puppets and put on puppet shows, to make valentines and other holiday cards, to repeat rimes and nonsense verse, to play lotto and guessing games of various kinds, and to go on tours to points of interest.

Language programs in the elementary school are now so numerous as to have become somewhat standardized in their content as well as in their techniques. Several curricular guides have been written[3] and they all agree on the kind of material which is suitable for treatment in the early grades.[4] Most first-grade reading texts in English deal with the family, the home, pets, clothing, the farm, health habits, and the like. It is therefore natural that these same subjects should be treated in the foreign language. Numbers, the days of the week, the months, dates, colors, and telling time are also usually introduced early, though not necessarily all in the first grade.

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[3] Carlsbad, Cleveland, El Paso, Los Angeles, Louisiana, Somerville, N.J., Tucson, Washington, D.C.

In such a program as that of El Paso the printed word is not seen until the third grade, when a beginning is made in associating printed words with objects and sound patterns. The theory that the ear and the tongue should be thoroughly trained before written symbols are introduced is unquestionably sound.

As Carlos Rivera suggests in his article, the second year should build on the first and add to it units which are common at this level, such as community helpers - the policeman, postman, and fireman. He also considers a good picture book for coloring useful in the second grade. Other units which have been mentioned in connection with grade two are fruits, vegetables, foods, numbers, parts of the body, school, pets, the garden, health, and safety. The overlapping which is apparent from grade to grade is indeed desirable since it serves to correlate progress and review. Thus, for example, the classroom, which forms a natural unit for grade one, can be followed by corresponding units on the school in grades two and above.

In grade three the language units again naturally follow the expanding horizon of the child's world. If the language arts and social studies are focused on the community, the foreign language should emphasize the same theme. Units already introduced in grades one and two may be reintroduced and elaborated. Numbers, which appear in almost any language class from the beginning, lead naturally to arithmetical operations of greater and greater complexity. Other units which in some school systems are associated particularly with the third grade are the calendar, age, telling time, the flag, and community services.

The opportunity to relate foreign languages to the language arts, to the social studies, and to numberwork is apparent. The relationship between languages, music, and art is equally natural. If nature study is begun in the primary grades, this adds a further possible dimension to language study.

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[4] A most logical and natural sequence of units for the first grade is offered by Carlos Rivera in the article and in the *Manual* already cited. He has also carried his planning through grade two and has published lesson plans.

Most teachers are agreed that the elementary school curriculum must be kept flexible. These indications are therefore merely suggestive. The resourceful teacher will be quick to capitalize on children's interests while they last even if it means abandoning a carefully prepared plan. Careful preparations must of course be made, but one must be ready to modify them if the unforeseen happens. Sometimes the children amaze the teacher by the speed with which they learn or by the mass of material they absorb. The alert teacher will keep feeding their avid minds and imaginations. It is easy to overwhelm children with what grown-ups think they ought to learn, but it is just as easy to think that children cannot possibly learn certain things, no matter how well motivated. A good rule to follow is this: Never underestimate the learning power of a child.

# CHAPTER X

## Foreign Languages in the Middle Grades

Language learning should not only be begun as early as possible; it should also be assured of continuity if by impartial evaluation it is judged to be educationally worth while. In addition to being continuous, a program should be progressive. It is not enough to repeat essentially the same materials and the same activities in grade after grade. After spending the first part of the year reviewing materials previously covered -- but discreetly mingling new material with review -- the teacher should open up for the children new and broader experiences. The second-grade teacher should make advances over what has been done in the first grade and the third-grade teacher should move still farther ahead.

But the fourth-grade work marks a distinct advance.[1] Nine- and ten-year-olds are no longer "babies." Their rapidly maturing powers of reasoning need to be challenged in order to develop as fully as possible. Many of the principles and techniques of primary-grade teaching are applicable to the middle grades, but they must be adapted. It will not do to insult the maturing child by playing games which seem to him "childish." The foreign language work of the primary grades has been confined to aural and oral experience -- aided by the visual, tangible, and dramatic-- and is therefore meant to initiate the child's articulateness in the foreign tongue. It is the function of the middle grades not only to increase the oral articulateness of the child but also to begin the process of making him literate in a second language. If the work of the previous three grades has been done well, the sound patterns of the second language should be so firmly established that the written or printed symbol should cause no difficulty. And of course the average child will have learned to read and write his own language well enough so that there will be no interference between his first and second languages.

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[1] Irene Dorval Hancock, Elizabeth Segal, and others have prepared an excellent *Guide to Resource Materials for the First Year of Spanish in the Elementary Grades, Grade IV,* for use in the San Diego City Schools. The theory is sound and the use of materials, suggested methods, and techniques in this *Guide* and the accompanying *Handbook* are excellent.

Some programs stress practice in speaking the second language to the exclusion of practice in reading and writing it. The speaking objective is of course primary, but the neglect of reading and writing is in my opinion unjustified. Conventional programs in the high school often fall into the contrary error: they teach understanding, speaking, reading, and writing all at once. When the teacher discovers how very difficult this is, he quietly omits the first two objectives and concentrates on reading and writing, in which progress is more palpable. One of the great advantages of the kind of program I am proposing is that, without taking an undue amount of time, it allows an adequate period in the primary grades for learning the sound patterns of a foreign language and in the middle or intermediate grades for mastering the printed and written symbols. The result is that the danger of mispronouncing printed words or in general of confusing the spoken and written language is greatly reduced.

The task of the foreign language teacher in the middle grades is to guide the children as they learn to read and write the words and expressions which they have already learned to say. In the words of Margit MacRae, "...reading is the process of recognizing a symbol for an *already familiar sound.*"[2] On this level, reading and writing are inseparable. Writing is to reading as speaking is to understanding. The one is the active counterpart of the other. Mrs. MacRae suggests as an excellent means of beginning reading the use of dramatizations by the children which the teacher has recorded.[3]

The children in the fourth grade should also be aided in making the connection between objects, pictures, or numbers and the printed symbols which represent them. This writing or printing can be practiced in the children's notebooks or on the board.

The middle-grade teacher should take advantage of the intellectual development of his pupils to broaden greatly the range of their activities. The use of books -- in Spanish and English -- can expand the children's horizons enormously. After a period of initiation in class during which all the children read the same story,[4] reproduce it orally or in writing, dramatize it, and converse about it in the foreign language, the children should be allowed a free choice of books from a well-furnished school library to take home to read. As they take turns reporting on their reading, others may become interested and want in turn to read the same books. This kind of reading program has also the advantage of allowing for different tastes and different abilities. Dramatizing stories still appeals very much to children in the middle grades. In fact, groups can be organized, each to dramatize its own story, and a sort of dramatic festival, put on for the school, the parents, and other interested citizens, could provide the grand finale of the year.

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[2] *Handbook for the Teaching of Spanish in Elementary Grades,* San Diego City Schools, 1952, pp. 92-93.

[3] *Ibid.,* p. 93. This *Handbook* contains a whole chapter on a variety of techniques and games which are useful in teaching reading.

How should books be selected? Certainly not according to some preconceived criteria about what the children "should know." As always, the best results are obtained when there is a proper regard for the natural interests of the children at a given age. An ample, varied, and stimulating fare should be prepared, so that the children are challenged to surpass themselves. There should be constant experimentation with stories and books to see which ones work best.

I have spoken of notebooks. If the children have previously used notebooks for drawings, pictures, and cutouts, they can now write in the appropriate labels. Not only can workbooks be a treasury of new words and expressions learned; they can serve as a record of stories read, with summaries; they can encourage the writing of original stories, with or without illustrations.

In these grades, too, the blackboard--if it is still black--comes into its own. No longer need the teacher and the pupils confine themselves to pictures and numbers. Words, phrases, sentences, and stories may be put on the board for general discussion.

The introduction of reading and writing in grades four, five, and six does not mean that the aural-oral approach of the primary grades should be abandoned. It should be a permanent part of the work in every grade of the elementary school, the junior high school, and the senior high school, for learning to *speak* a foreign language is the basic objective throughout. However, learning to read and learning to write are also important objectives and therefore the multiple approach is essential. Variety is still the best way to maintain class interest, but the good teacher, while varying his techniques, especially by the use of visual aids and dramatization, will respect the natural order of language learning, namely, hearing, speaking, reading, and writing.

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[4] The San Diego *Handbook* also contains an excellent chapter on "The Story Approach."

The objectives in the middle grades should be to increase the range of understanding and speaking and gradually to bring the reading and writing knowledge up to the point where the twelve-year-old in the sixth grade can read and write everything he can understand or say. The teacher must challenge the child constantly, but he must also be equal to the challenge which the child presents to him. The child's language-learning capacities are not increasing in the middle grades, but his opening and fast-maturing mind requires such nourishment as will tax the most alert and ingenious teacher. This is the fortunate moment when a youth's vast intellectual vistas begin to open up, and his interest will keep alive so long as a resourceful and competent teacher will affectionately and respectfully challenge the best he has in him -- linguistically, educationally, humanly.

# CHAPTER XI

## Foreign Languages in the Upper Grades

In some places the elementary school ends with the sixth grade, in others with the eighth. It is therefore necessary to say something about language teaching after grade six although the scope of this little book limits us to a few brief paragraphs.

Just as the middle or intermediate grades represent a marked step over the primary grades, so the upper or junior high school grades should represent another distinct step in advance. The minds of at least the average and superior students will by this time have developed to the point where they crave greater intellectual exercise. The slower students who are interested might be permitted to continue their foreign language experience in special classes which stress conversation and suitable readings about the foreign people and their culture. The uninterested students should be allowed to discontinue their foreign language study at this point.

The time is ripe then for the presentation of the grammar or structure of the second language to those students who are not only interested but able to profit from a more rigorous foreign language study. Nothing should be easier. Grammar, or appropriate usage, should by this time be habitual to the student by virtue of constant repetition of acceptable patterns. It is a question then of becoming conscious of usage and analyzing the whys and wherefores of it. A comparison between the grammatical pattern of English, which the student will probably be studying at this time, and that of the foreign language should be useful and enlightening. The study of cognates and discreet references to the history and evolution of the foreign language should also be helpful.

From this point on, while continuing to make gains in the mastery of the language skills, it is in the *knowledge* of the language that students -- those who are interested and apt -- will make the most conspicuous gains. If the formal study of grammar continues through grades seven, eight, and nine, most students should, at an age when formerly they only began the study of a second language, possess a basic knowledge and mastery of the language. It should be possible for the fourteen- or fifteen-year-old to understand a foreigner conversing about ordinary, everyday subjects and to speak correctly and fluently about these same subjects. He should be able to read with full comprehension anything except specialized material and express himself in writing, simply, of course, but with reasonable correctness and naturalness.

Grammar then is the new element to be added during the junior high school years, but of course practice in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing must continue throughout. In order to give the ear constant training, the teacher's use of the foreign language should be supplemented by recordings, sound films, and talks by native speakers who are invited to address the class. Oral mastery can be improved by means of talks by the students -- accounts of travel or other experiences, reading reports, the presentation of an idea or point of view -- or by debates and plays. Skill in reading can be improved by continued practice. While being varied enough to allow for individual tastes, reading must be more mature in its interest if it is to challenge young adolescents. This reading should open new vistas and continue to stimulate the imagination. Improved expression in writing also requires much practice. It is one of the most urgent responsibilities of our schools, supported by our communities, to provide able teachers with time enough to encourage more students to express themselves in writing. Some students find writing the most congenial form for expressing their expanding ideas, and for all educated human beings it is the acid test of literacy. A notebook in which to keep a record of reading and other experiences, letters to pen friends abroad, contributions to student foreign language papers are among the many possibilities open to students.

One final word about grades ten, eleven, and twelve. While continuing to build on all the language skills, the maturing senior high school student -- unless he is markedly slow or retarded -- requires a really substantial intellectual diet. The elements to be added to the language course might be a general view of the history, literature, and civilization of the people whose language has been studied. Not that the student has not already been exposed to these subjects, but now -- if he has been properly motivated throughout -- he wants to deepen his understanding and organize his expanding knowledge in these fields.

A student finishing such a course will have a mastery of a foreign language and a knowledge and understanding of a foreign people roughly comparable to his knowledge and understanding of his own civilization. In fact, he will know his own culture better by virtue of the knowledge of a foreign culture, which gives him the means of making enlightened comparisons. If a student discontinues his studies at any point, he will have had a useful exposure to a foreign tongue and culture, which will encourage him to think internationally and not just nationally or locally. If he goes on to college, he will be prepared to do, in a foreign language as well as in his own, the mature kind of work which he should do in a college or university.

It is now time for us to ask whether such a twelve-year course can be expected to produce educationally worth-while results. How is it likely to compare with our present two-, three-, and four-year courses? The latter have come to be regarded as something of a joke. One frequently overhears such dialogues as this, as the train rolls from Le Havre or Cherbourg to Paris:

"Now I wish I knew this language." --"Didn't you have French in school?" ---"No, I took Spanish. They told me it was easier. And I didn't even learn enough of that to understand a Spaniard or ask the way to the hotel." -- "Well, I had two years of French in high school and then dropped it for a year. When I got to college, I had forgotten most of it and had to start all over. I had two more years of the stuff, but all we did was to translate some silly stories from French to English or some synthetic little grammar sentences from English to French. We never did any talking in French. It was pretty much a waste of time."

Even if one makes allowance for the exaggeration made for conversational effect, there is enough truth in such remarks to give us language teachers a jolt. It is evident that a twelve-year course such as we have advocated would produce better results than such traditional courses as were alluded to in the conversation just overheard, but it is difficult to estimate how much better.

The easiest kind of comparison is that of actual classroom hours. If we assume that our tourist had the conventional high school French course and that his college class met three times a week for two years, the total will come to roughly 400 contact hours. In the case of our twelve-year course let us assume, for the primary grades, lessons of fifteen minutes a day five days a week; for the middle grades, lessons averaging twenty-five minutes a day four days a week; for the junior high school, lessons of forty minutes a day three times a week; and for the senior high school, two forty-minute classes a week. This will add up to about 900 contact hours or a ratio of about one to two.

It would be disappointing, however, if the twelve-year course proved to be only twice as good as the ineffective course that it proposes to supplant.

The new course makes explicit the aims and objectives about which language teachers in the past have not always been in agreement or which they have taken for granted. Most of the language programs in the elementary school announce as their immediate objective the teaching of languages by the direct aural-oral or conversational method so that children may first of all learn to understand and speak a foreign language. Among the long-range objectives the goal of better international understanding is always specified.

The new course is also firmly rooted in acceptable method and technique. Starting at an age when the learning of a language comes easily, the child reacts enthusiastically to the varied procedures of the conversational method and usually surprises his teachers and parents by his rapid progress. In a word, the method commonly used in the elementary school seeks to approach as closely as possible the way in which children naturally learn languages - their own or a foreign tongue.

A program which holds the promise of producing bilingual or multilingual Americans in much greater numbers, of facilitating social and cultural adjustments within our own population, and of building vast reserves of international understanding and good will deserves consideration. The success of such long-standing programs as that of Cleveland and the acclaim which has greeted many newer programs, such as those of El Paso, Los Angeles, San Diego, and Louisiana, justify the expectation that successful foreign language programs will spread into more and more communities. When the American of the future travels, he can expect to derive much more pleasure and profit from his trips because of his knowledge of a second language. When he picks up a book to read, he will no longer need to confine himself to something written in his own language. He will discover that a book can transport him even more quickly than a plane to foreign lands and serve almost as well to widen his horizon. And when he finds himself at a conference table with representatives of other peoples, he will realize that a knowledge of a second or third language will greatly increase his power to work with other nationalities for the improvement of relations between peoples and nations. A program which holds the promise of accomplishing so much good in the context of our twentieth century deserves a chance to prove itself, and there are already many who are confident that if given this opportunity it will justify itself splendidly.

# CHAPTER XII

## The Place of the Language Teacher in Our School and Society

It is clear that in the kind of language program we have sketched the teacher cannot play a perfunctory role. To be successful he must possess as broad a set of qualifications -- both professional and personal -- as any expert in our complex society. Indeed to many it will appear impossible to find or train teachers with these qualifications in sufficient numbers to meet the growing demand. Many will therefore be tempted out of a sense of "realism" to compromise with these requirements. Realism properly understood requires a clear enunciation of standards and of the conditions necessary to achieve them. There must be no compromise of the sort which has produced such mediocre results in many of our secondary schools and colleges and which has caused our language teachers, despite their valiant efforts to work against odds, to be misunderstood and unappreciated. Neither the elementary school nor the language-teaching profession can afford to compromise in this way, for to push compromise too far is to risk failure.

This does not of course mean that communities should not make a start without waiting for fully qualified teachers. The important thing is to recognize proper standards and to progress toward the ideal. A teacher who is not initially fully qualified should not feel intimidated about launching a program in the early grades, but he should be conscious of his shortcomings and be willing to work for their gradual elimination. It has been pointed out that some of the most alert and enlightened programs now in progress are built on this principle. The teacher willingly accepts in the classroom the collaboration of a native speaker whose voice is recorded on tape, and attends summer workshops for the purpose of improving his qualifications. Thus, undeterred by shortcomings which are freely and honestly recognized, he is motivated by the desire to improve continually. In such a way realism and idealism can be combined harmoniously.

Surveys in various school systems have revealed unsuspected language talents, in many cases enough to get started. But despite the fact that some elementary school teachers have language competence and that many adaptable high school teachers are eager to assist, there is still need for new training programs. Some teachers colleges and universities have already launched such programs, happily, and workshops are springing up in many places. More teachers are seeking opportunities to study languages in the summer, preferably in the foreign environment. Carefully planned exchange programs with other countries constitute a whole new source of supply.

Intimately related to the problems of qualifications and supply is the problem of certification. Some states have already revised their rules and there is a nation-wide disposition to reconsider in a fundamental way the whole basis of certification. The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards devoted its entire annual meeting in Miami Beach, from June 23 to June 27, 1953, to a study of this subject. Given this disposition, it is only necessary for all who have a legitimate interest to work together in open and unhurried fashion in order to achieve a satisfactory solution to this problem.

Since success or failure depends primarily on the teacher, let us consider the role of the language teacher in the American school and in American society. I have tried to define the personal, professional, and linguistic qualifications of a good teacher of foreign languages in the elementary school. In so doing I have resisted the temptation to affirm that the teacher of a second language should necessarily be the regular classroom teacher or should necessarily be a specialist. He should possess the high and varied qualifications which have been mentioned, whether he is a classroom teacher or a specialist.

I have discovered in some quarters a tendency to assume that the classroom teacher *must* add the teaching of language to his various other accomplishments. One can understand the desirability of placing as much responsibility as possible for young children in the hands of one classroom teacher, who in the lower grades especially stands *in loco matris*, but in my opinion emphasis on this desirability has in some instances become doctrinaire. It can result in a lack of respect for the integrity of certain areas of experience and learning. If experience in such varied fields as music, art, science, and now foreign language is considered desirable, as it is in many places, it is too much to expect in one person the competence and enthusiasm in all these subjects which are necessary to stimulate a proper interest and understanding in the children. One or more areas are likely to be neglected or taught perfunctorily. This would be particularly regrettable when children are of an age to meet enthusiasm with enthusiasm. Elementary school children, whose eagerness to explore new fields of experience is almost unlimited, deserve the very best of teaching in each field. Insistence on one teacher may therefore involve too high a price.

The teacher of a foreign language, like the teacher of music, art, or science, is inevitably a specialist. This does not, however, mean that he is entitled to ignore the important subjects of elementary school philosophy and practice. In order to be fully effective in the teaching of his special field he must be aware of the rest of the children's school experience and cooperate with the regular classroom teacher and with other teachers, if there are any, in providing the children with a well-rounded total educational experience.

Not only should the foreign language teacher cooperate fully with his colleagues but he also carries a special responsibility in the field of public relations. The teaching of foreign languages in the elementary school is a relatively new and still largely experimental venture. It is not enough to do a good job in the classroom; the language teacher must take the initiative in being certain that the objectives of the program and the teaching methods which are used are fully understood by colleagues, administrators, and parents. It has been found in some programs that the parents are so interested that they wish to receive mimeographed copies of the lesson material even though the children themselves, in the lowest grades, do not use any printed text. In some cases the interest of parents has expressed itself in a desire to organize adult classes in the language which their children are learning.

The publicizing efforts of the language teacher should not stop with the parents, whose interest can almost be counted on. If a language program is to become a part of the regular school offerings, the board of education and, in some cases, the board of finance must also be thoroughly informed of the merits of the program and must be assured of adequate public interest and support. Here again the language teacher must take the initiative. Members of the school and finance boards and other interested citizens should be cordially invited to visit classes or demonstrations. Discussion groups, workshops, radio and television programs can all serve to advance the public understanding of this new field of educational endeavor.

Such an acceptance by the foreign language teacher of a total professional responsibility is in line with the effort of American teachers, individually and collectively in their various organizations, to become more highly professionalized and ultimately to deserve and to achieve a professional status which will be recognized and properly rewarded by their fellow citizens. Next to the parent, the elementary school teacher plays the most important role in transmitting our cultural heritage and in forging a more vital democracy, for he is the inspirer and molder of an opening mind.

Again, if we apply the supreme test of our time and ask how the language teacher contributes to better international understanding, it is clear that the teacher who relates language learning to the sympathetic understanding of other peoples and joins his efforts to those of other teachers and men of good will is doing his full share in trying to build a peaceful world.

# APPENDIX

## Selected Bibliography of
## Available Materials

## Sample Lessons and Key

## Syllabi and Guides

Brady, Agnes M. *Syllabus and Course of Study for Spanish in the Grade Schools.* University of Kansas, 1951. Vol. I, 127 pp.; Vol. II, 122 pp. Paper, mimeographed.

A very complete and detailed syllabus, to accompany a printed text: Wills, *Diciendo y Haciendo,* Banks Upshaw, Dallas, Texas. Intended for students who are beginning in the fifth grade. Vol. I contains 28 units or lessons, far more than could be used in one year. Vol. II contains abundant material for reading, short plays, games, maps, reading lists, and the like. The first effort is devoted to teaching oral Spanish; reading and writing are introduced later.

Cleveland Public Schools. *Course of Study, Juvenile French.* Part I, Grades I-VI; Part II, Grades II-VI. Cleveland, Ohio, 1949. Part I, 90 pp.; Part II, 97 pp. Mimeographed.

Part I gives detailed instructions for 85 units or lessons, plus copious material on vocabulary, conversation, games, stories, and dramatic scenes. Classes are conducted entirely in French, and every provision is made for repetition and thorough learning of new material as it is presented. Part II contains 13 short plays adapted for use in these grades.

Cleveland Public Schools. *Course of Study, Juvenile Spanish.* Grades I-VI. Cleveland, Ohio, 1952. 15 pp. Mimeographed.

A brief outline of 63 units or lessons, planned for classes of a half hour's duration, in which only Spanish is spoken. Also the text of two short dramatic scenes. Based on the same principles as the Cleveland Plan for the teaching of French.

Colliette, Mabel, and Landry, Thomas R. *French Can Enrich Your Elementary School Program.* Baton Rouge, Louisiana: State Department of Education, Bulletin 729. Issued by Shelby M. Jackson, State Superintendent. 24 pp. Paper.

A progress report on the teaching of conversational French in several Louisiana school systems, giving answers to basic questions about plan, procedure, and material.

de Sauzé, Émile B. *Cleveland Plan for the Teaching of Modern Languages.* Philadelphia: Winston Company, 1946. 82 pp. Paper.

Although this booklet contains lesson material for the high school level, the story it tells of the Cleveland experiment and its basic reasoning about the all-French method make interesting and important reading for any language teacher.

Estep, Hunter L., and others. *Elementary Spanish. Course of Study.* Carlsbad (New Mexico) City Schools, 1952. 45 pp. Mimeographed.

Units are provided for teaching vocabulary and conversation in the first five grades. Accuracy in pronunciation and active use of words and phrases in relation to pictures and objects are

emphasized. Reading is not introduced until the sixth grade. Supplementary material includes songs and poems, suggested activities, and a bibliography of books with Latin-American content for children.

Hancock, Irene D.; Segal, Elizabeth; and others. *Guide to Resource Materials for the First Year of Spanish in the Elementary Grades. Grade IV.* San Diego (Calif.) City Schools, 1953. 241 pp. Illus.; multilithed.

Detailed directions are given for the first five weeks of daily classes; then lesson plans are suggested for the rest of the year. Stories, expressions, songs, pictures, and suggestions for further vocabulary study and evaluation are provided in abundance. Samples of printed sheets to be given to the students are also included.

*Lesson Plans for Conversational Spanish. Grade II.* El Paso, Texas, 1952. 43 pp. Mimeographed.

Thirty-seven brief lessons give vocabulary, reading sentences, and question drill centering on a single subject: the kitchen, health, the donkey, etc. The material is presented in a graded sequence without instructions for use.

Los Angeles City Schools. *Instructional Guide for Teaching Spanish in the Elementary Schools.* Los Angeles: School Publication no. 414, 1946. 214 pp.

Basic background material for the teacher and suggested procedures and material for each level from the kindergarten through the sixth grade. Music for songs is provided, and records with vocabulary and expressions for each grade are listed. Material is somewhat brief but well arranged.

MacGowan, S. J., and Eaton, Evelyn M. *Experimental Course in French for Grade III and Teachers' Manual for "Jouons," Grades IV and V.* Montreal: Quebec Department of Education. 144 pp. Mimeographed.

The method used in this book is stated thus: "Listen, imitate, repeat to the point of memorization, and then use and adapt to different situations." A wide variety of activities puts the method into practice: conversations, plays, games, vocabulary and grammatical exercises, response to commands, stories for comprehension, and sample tests. Frequent reference is made to English. Despite its title, the book seems full of wisdom that could come only from experience. *Jouons* is an exercise and practice book by the same authors.

MacGowan, S. J.; Amaron, R. C.; and Eaton, Evelyn M. *Jouons.* Première partie. Deuxième partie. Quebec Department of Education, 1952. Paper; mimeographed.

A wide variety of exercises that will enable the student to understand and answer questions and commands in French and to translate readily from English into French. No written work is expected of the student, but the book will enable him to practice by himself and prepare for classroom exercises. Answer sheets are provided for checking replies. Part I is intended for use in Grade IV, Part II in Grade V. An accompanying teachers' manual has been prepared.

MacRae, Margit W. (editor and compiler) and others. *Handbook for the Teaching of Spanish in the Elementary Grades*. San Diego (Calif.) City Schools, 1952. 223 pp. Paper; multilithed.

Material is prepared especially for the teacher of any of the three elementary grades in which Spanish is taught. Abundant material is provided, with extensive directions for its effective use. Problems varying from accuracy of pronunciation to relations with the community are treated. An annotated bibliography of texts, readers, and accessories is included.

Quebec Department of Education. *Handbook for Teachers in the Protestant Schools of the Province of Quebec*. Montreal: Quebec Department of Education, 1951. 258 pp. Paper.

Pages 61-76 give a valuable summary of the procedures used in teaching French from Grades III to XI in a geographical area that is bilingual.

Rivera, Carlos. *Manual of Materials, Aids, and Techniques for the Teaching of Spanish to English-Speaking Children. First Grade*. El Paso (Texas) Public Schools, 1952. 119 pp. Paper; mimeographed.

An excellent summary of the all-Spanish method used in the first grade of the El Paso public schools. Provision is made for daily lessons of 15 to 20 minutes' duration. The oral-aural skills are developed by the use of expressions dealing with greetings, names, colors, numbers, the classroom, houses, food, clothing, and animals. Much use is made of colored pictures to provide subjects of conversation. Only complete sentences are used in the presentation of vocabulary. Conversations, scenes, rimes, and songs enable the first-graders to understand, reply, and think in Spanish.

Rose, Charles L. *Curriculum Guide for Elementary Schools in New Mexico*. State of New Mexico, Department of Education, 1950. 301 pp. Paper.

Pages 206-241 deal with the teaching of Spanish. Daily classes of 30 minutes' duration and conducted entirely in Spanish are recommended. Lesson plans and brief suggestions about material are given for each of eight levels. Bilingualism is the ultimate objective.

White, Emilie Margaret; McDuffie, Clyde C.; and others. *A Guide to the Teaching of French in the Elementary Schools*. Washington, D. C.; Public Schools in the District of Columbia, 1952. 93 pp. Mimeographed.

Intended for classes meeting 20 minutes daily, Grades I-VI. One chapter is devoted to each grade. New material is presented in a carefully graded sequence, with ample provision for repetition. All work is to be done orally. The importance of pictures, objects, and gestures is stressed. Prepared for use by regular classroom teachers. On pages 92 - 93 there is a short bibliography of books in French that will be found useful at the different grade levels.

White, Emilie Margaret; McDuffie, Clyde C.; and others. *A Guide for the Teaching of German in the Elementary Schools*. Washington, D. C.: Public Schools in the District of Columbia, 1952. 79 pp. Mimeographed.

For the teaching of oral German from Grades I through VI. The procedure is parallel to that in the same authors' *Guide to the Teaching of French.*

White, Emilie Margaret; McDuffie, Clyde C.; and others. *A Guide for the Teaching of Spanish in the Elementary Schools.* Washington, D. C.; Public Schools in the District of Columbia, 1952.

For the teaching of oral Spanish from Grades I through VI. The procedure is parallel to that in the same authors' *Guide to the Teaching of French.*

Woods, L. A. *Tentative Course of Study for the Teaching of Spanish in Grades 3 to 8 Inclusive.* Austin, Texas: State Department of Education, 1943. 212 pp. Paper.

A detailed presentation of methods and materials for use in each of these six grades. The oral approach is recommended. Translation and formal grammar are avoided. The student learns to understand, speak, and read, but does not write. Extensive bibliography of reference and source material.

## Texts

Abreu Gómez, Ermilio, and others. *Biblioteca Popular Latinoamericana:* 4 series, de civismo, de salud, de agricultura, de economía y asuntos sociales. Several booklets in each series. Washington, D.C.: Pan American Union. Each booklet 20-25 pp. Illus.; paper.

These series have been prepared, with the collaboration of UNESCO, for discussion groups, and deal in simple language with serious ideas and human problems. The direct relationship between pictures and text will facilitate questions and answers. No English. Some of the titles are: *Vamos a leer, Agua pura, ¡Cuidado con la leche! José de San Martín.* These booklets can be used at any age with students who have already had some practice in speaking. Film strips, records, wall maps, and radio programs have been prepared to accompany the booklets.

Bain, A. W. *French Poetry for Children.* London: Macmillan Company, 1948. 58 pp. Illus.

A good selection of 67 short lyrics, published without notes or vocabulary. Suitable for reading and memorizing at any age.

Camerlynck et Camerlynck. *Pour les Petits.* Paris: Didier, 1948. 157 pp. Illus.

Designed for teaching in France, this beginners' book is for those who believe in phonetics for the young. The final 30 pages are given over to phonetic transcriptions. Oral exercises are accompanied by pictures to illustrate new words and expressions. Songs and short lyrics are introduced. Suitable for students in Grades III-V who have already had oral French.

Gabriel, Miguel. *Español para los niños.* New York: Ungar Publishing Company, 1944. 96 pp. Illus.

Many excellent drawings are accompanied by words and sentences that lend themselves well to oral-aural techniques. Similar in plan and presentation to Wellek and Bass' *Rire et Apprendre.* English in end vocabulary only. Suitable for children up to the age of twelve.

Garrett, N. H. *Jean Bonnard, petit écolier.* London: Harrap, new ed. 1953. 64 pp. Illus.; paper.

Twelve brief chapters tell the activities of Jean in very simple French. There are 15-20 questions on each chapter. A good book to use for reading aloud if students have enough vocabulary. Suitable for Grades IV-VI.

Guillemin, Anne. *Dessins parlants.* London: Harrap, 1953. 96 pp. Illus.; paper.

Vocabulary is taught by grouping words and sentences first around 12 different subjects, then around each letter of the alphabet. An exercise accompanies each section. No English except in the end vocabulary. Suitable for intermediate or advanced classes in which the students are at least 11 or 12 years of age.

Hale, Lois, and Rhodes, Reuby. *Amigos Panamericanos. Juan y María.* Austin, Texas: Steck Company, 1945. 64 pp. Illus.

*Juan y María* and the four other readers in the same series *(Juan y María en Casa; Juan y María en la Escuela; Juan y María en los Estados Unidos; Juan y María en Méjico)* contain material of graded difficulty that may be found useful as outside reading. Suitable for Grade III or IV and up.

Harter, Helen. *Goldilocks y los Tres Osos y Otros Cuentos.* Dallas: Banks Upshaw and Company. 125 pp. Illus.

A good reader for third-graders who have already had oral Spanish. English in end vocabulary only.

Institute of Inter-American Affairs, Washington, D. C. *Linda Rita,* 21 pp.; *Juan el Poblano,* 25 pp.; *El Buey que Quería Vivir en la Casa,* 45 pp.; *El Cerdito que Fué al Mercado,* 54 pp.; *Los Patos Son Diferentes,* 35 pp.; *La Gallina que Quería Ayudar,* 43 pp.; *En el Camino de la Escuela,* 76 pp.

A series of booklets illustrated in color, prepared for teaching reading to first- and second-graders in Spanish-speaking countries. They are graduated in difficulty according to the order in which they are listed. Suitable for American pupils in the third or fourth grade who are beginning to read Spanish. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C.

Jolly, R. *En Riant--la Lecture sans Larmes.* Paris: Nathan, 1952. Vol. I, 30 pp.; Vol. II, 48 pp.; Vol. III, 96 pp. Illus.; paper.

A series of booklets intended to teach French children to read. The first could hardly be used by young Americans, but the second could well be used in Grade III or IV and the third in Grade V or VI. Many illustrations accompany a simple text of graded difficulty.

MacGowan, S. J.; Amaron, R. C.; and Eaton, Evelyn M. *Avançons.* Toronto: Macmillan Company, 1942. 205 pp. Illus.

A reading book, authorized for use in the Protestant schools of Quebec, suitable for sixth- and seventh-grade students who have had French for some years. Brief stories and dramatic scenes are followed by questionnaires and translation exercises. No end vocabulary, but many English equivalents are given in the text. Revised in 1950.

Mireles, E. E.; Fisher, R. B.; and Mireles, Jovita G. *Mi Libro Español. Libro Uno.* Austin, Texas: Benson and Company, 1941. 99 pp. Illus.

This text and the two others *(Libro Dos* and *Libro Tres)* that follow it in the same series contain simple reading material that may be found useful outside of class. Suitable for Grade III or IV and up.

Mireles, E. E., and Mireles, Jovita G. *El Español Elemental.* Austin, Texas: Benson and Company, 1949. Illus.

A series of six books of graded difficulty that may be found useful as outside reading. Suitable for Grades III to VI.

Patterson, Frances H. *Mes Premières Leçons de Français.* Dayton, Ohio (18 Beverly Place): Mes Premières Leçons de Français, 1945. 102 pp. Illus.; paper.

This book teaches vocabulary, speaking, and reading by means of picture, sentence, question, and story. Copious drawings, well integrated with text. No English. Suitable for Grades III to VI.

Robin, C., and Bergeaud, C. *Le Français par la Méthode Directe.* Paris: Hachette, 1941. 150 pp. Illus.

Although addressed to children, this text is so well done that it could be used by adults. All in French. Very useful illustrations, many in color. Recommended for Grade IV or Grade V and after. Presentation excellent.

Timms, W. W. *Vive le français!* London: Harrap, 1941. 126 pp. Illus.

A manual of French conversation and free composition, suitable for students between the ages of eleven and sixteen. Also for beginners in evening classes. Provides material for added practice in speaking French and for the oral revision of much that is found in the average course. Two excellent features: 15 cartoons with 18-20 questions in French on each; 12 series of cartoons (6 in each) that tell a story, with vocabulary for relating what happens.

Vigneras, Marcel. *Chansons de France.* Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1941. 52 pp. Paper.

Forty-four songs chosen for use in class and club, with simple accompaniment. Clearly printed, with elisions and liaisons marked. A good selection.

Wellek, Susanne. *Lachen und Lernen.* New York: Ungar Publishing Company, 1946. 148 pp. Illus.

An excellent book, similar to the same author's *Rire et Apprendre.* Copious drawings accompanied by words and sentences that make the meaning clear. No English. Suitable for students who have already had some oral-aural training, from the fourth grade on.

——. *Paul et Marie à l'École.* New York: Ungar Publishing Company, 1950. 207 pp. Illus.

A sequel to the same author's *Rire et Apprendre.* No English. A reader and a grammar for children who have already had some training by the direct method. Illustrations are excellent.

Wellek, Susanne, and Bass, Nelly. *Rire et Apprendre.* New York: Ungar Publishing Company, 1940. 126 pp. Illus.
Suitable for beginners in Grades III-IV. Divided into three parts: learning to understand and talk, learning to read, learning to spell. Many illustrations, some in color. No English.

Wills, Élida. *Diciendo y Haciendo.* Dallas, Texas: Banks Upshaw Company, 1945. 86 pp. Illus.
The first of a series of six graded reading texts entitled *Español que Funciona.* It may be used in the third or fourth grade when the introduction of reading is desired.

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Angiolillo, Paul F. "French for the Feeble-Minded: an Experiment." *Modern Language Journal,* vol. 26 (April 1942), pp. 266-271.
A statement of observations made while teaching French to students with a very low I. Q. Many factors that are especially significant when dealing with children are brought into sharp relief.

Arsenian, Seth. "Bilingualism in the Post-War World." *Psychological Bulletin,* vol. 42, no. 2 (Feb. 1945), pp. 65-86.
A significant review of the importance of languages in the contemporary world picture, in which the monolinguist is seen to be at a great disadvantage. On page 80 the author says: "On the whole, our practices in the teaching of a second language seem to be based on the assumption that language-learning is a conscious reasoning process--an assumption that probably comes from the logicians and grammarians. It is time to question this assumption and to test its validation experimentally."

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Report of an experiment with carefully chosen fifth-grade students.

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Cameron, Yvonne G. "A Program and Plea for Practical Preparation in the Lower Forms." *French Review,* vol. 14, no. 6 (May 1941), pp. 477-484.

Report on a program for the lower grades that has been in action for some time.

Chamberlain, Dorothy. "Somerville's Sprouts, Linguists." *Hispania*, vol. 34 (Aug. 1951), pp. 290-291.

Connecticut State Department of Education. "Modern Languages in the Elementary School." Report of the Foreign Language Committee for Elementary Schools, appointed by Dr. Finis E. Engleman, Hartford, May 27, 1953.

A review of current activities and potential interest in teaching foreign languages at the elementary level. The problems and difficulties implied in a long-range program are carefully considered.

de Sauzé, Émile B. "An Oralist Looks at the Results." *Education*, vol. 57 (March 1937), pp. 422-427.

A close look at aims, measurable results, and persistent problems in teaching by the direct method.

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Dreier, Grace M. "Developing and Introducing a Program of Conversational Spanish in the Elementary Schools of Los Angeles, California." Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Schools, January 1953. U. S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D. C.

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A well documented article stressing the special need for languages in our contemporary society and the psychological reasons for beginning the study of a second language in the early grades of the elementary school.

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Finch, F. H., and Floyd, O. R. "The Relation of Chronological Age to Achievement in the Study of French." *Journal of Educational Psychology*, vol. 26 (Jan. 1935), pp. 52-58.

Foreign Language Program, Somerville Elementary Schools, Somerville, N. J. *Questions and Answers*, compiled by Margaret C. McCormack, 3 pp.; *Course of Study for Teaching of Spanish in Grades 3-6*, prepared by May Giovanniello, 17 pp.; *Spanish, Grades 3-6*, prepared by Mrs. Antoinette Larisch, 13 pp.

Gatenby, E. V. "Popular Fallacies in the Teaching of Foreign Languages." *English Language Teaching*, vol. 7, no. 1 (Autumn 1952), pp. 21-29. Published by the British Council, 65 Davies St., London W1.

Pertinent comments on the ability of children to learn any language, even Basque.

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Graves, Mortimer. "All the Foreign Languages." *Education*, vol. 72, no. 10 (June 1952), pp. 668-674.

———. "Intensive Language Study." *Far Eastern Survey*, vol. 12 (March 22, 1943), pp. 63-64.

———. "Wartime Instruction in Far Eastern Languages." *Far Eastern Survey*, vol. 15 (March 27, 1946), pp. 92-93.

Grew, James H. "A French Course for the Modern World." *French Review*, vol. 26, no. 3 (Jan. 1953), pp. 210-215.

A three-stage course is proposed. The first stage comprises Grades III-VI; the second, Grades VII-IX; the third, Grades X-XII. In the first stage, 15 minute daily classes are recommended, with no text and no homework, the only object being to develop the oral and aural skills. In the second stage reading and formal grammar are introduced, with continued emphasis on speaking. At the third stage studies in culture and literature are added to those already begun. English is banished from the classroom at all times. Bilingualism is the ultimate goal.

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An address presented at the Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Schools, held at Washington, D. C., January 1953.

———. *Language Study and World Affairs.*
A speech delivered at a meeting of the Central States Modern Language Association, St. Louis, Mo., May 3, 1952.

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Implied in the current increase of language teaching in the elementary schools is a new need for teachers and texts and for a better understanding of basic principles.

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# SAMPLE LESSONS AND KEY

## HERE'S ONE WAY

There are as many good ways of teaching as there are good teachers. The sample lessons which follow are meant to *suggest* a natural and logical beginning. It will be natural in proportion as the teaching is, or seems, incidental. The really good teacher does not stand up in front of the class and hold forth. He creates in the children a desire to learn by setting the stage for constructive and enthusiastic community activity. The most effective elementary school teachers follow this principle. Foreign language teachers would therefore do well to learn from them.

It is assumed in what follows that most of the teaching is done by a language specialist, and that the classroom teacher is interested in learning with the children and working together with the specialist. The classroom teacher can teach the specialist much about theory and practice in the elementary school and can learn much about the foreign language, perhaps enough to launch a class of his own later on. Where the classroom teacher knows French well, the material can be adapted accordingly.

The sample lessons given here are intended simply to launch a program. They provide abundant material for at least thirty classroom sessions of twenty minutes each. The program can then be continued with the help of materials listed in the Bibliography or through lessons prepared by the teacher. Since there is very little published material for the elementary level, the ingenuity of the teacher will determine the degree of success of the program. It is best to adopt the principle that during the French class no English will be used, except in desperation.

To assist the classroom teacher and to give parents an idea of what is going on, the lesson syllabus is prepared with a Key, which furnishes the English of all the expressions used in French. By using the Key, the lessons can be adapted to any other language which a community may request, such as Spanish, German, Italian, etc.

## LESSON I

### Bonjour, mes enfants!

*There is a knock at the door. No answer. The knock is repeated. The classroom teacher, by prearrangement with the French teacher, calls out, "Entrez!"*

*The French teacher opens the door, comes in, and approaches the classroom teacher.*

French teacher: Bonjour, Mademoiselle.[1]

Classroom teacher: Bonjour,Monsieur.

*She shakes hands with him and presents him to the children.*

Mes enfants, Monsieur ——.

French teacher: Bonjour, mes enfants.

*The classroom teacher turns to the class.*

Classroom teacher: Dites, "Bonjour, Monsieur."

Class: Bonjour, Monsieur.

*The French teacher approaches one of the boys.*

French teacher: Bonjour, mon garçon.

*He extends his hand.*

Boy: Bonjour, Monsieur.

*He stands up and shakes hands.*
*The French teacher approaches one of the girls.*

French teacher: Bonjour, ma petite fille.

*He extends his hand.*

Girl: Bonjour, Monsieur.

*She stands up and shakes hands.*

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[1] Naturally the French teacher will say *Madame* if the classroom teacher is married. For convenience we have used *Mademoiselle* throughout.

*During this conversation the classroom teacher has slipped out of the room and the French teacher has taken her place at the desk. There is a knock at the door. The children call out, "Entrez!" The classroom teacher enters and approaches the French teacher.*

Classroom teacher: Bonjour, Monsieur.

French teacher: Bonjour, Mademoiselle.

*They shake hands.*

Classroom teacher: Bonjour, mes enfants.

Class: Bonjour, Mademoiselle.

Classroom teacher: Bonjour, Jean.

Jean: Bonjour, Mademoiselle.

*He stands up and shakes hands.*

*At this point the classroom teacher selects a youngster and sends him out of the room to play the role of the French teacher. He knocks; the class calls out, "Entrez!" He comes in and runs through the sequence just finished. The French teacher then continues.*

French teacher: Merci, mon garçon, très bien.

Au revoir, mes enfants.

Class: Au revoir, Monsieur.

French teacher: Au revoir, Mademoiselle.

*They shake hands.*

Classroom teacher: Au revoir, Monsieur.

*Note: It will be observed that French patterns of behavior have as much as possible been introduced (use of title, handshaking). Secondly, we have aimed at a self-contained unit of action, a scene which lends itself to dramatic reproduction and variation. With respect to pronunciation, the French teacher would be well advised to stress good pronunciation from the very beginning. He should be meticulous about his own pronunciation and intonation and should guide the children, but without the slightest insistence.*

## LESSON II

### Comment allez-vous?

*The French teacher might go through the first lesson's sequence once and continue with the following.*

French teacher: Bonjour, Mademoiselle.

*They shake hands.*

Classroom teacher: Bonjour, Monsieur, Comment allez-vous?

French teacher: Très bien, merci, et vous?

Classroom teacher: Très bien, merci.

French teacher: Bonjour, mon garçon.

Boy: Bonjour, Monsieur.

*They shake hands.*

French teacher: Comment allez-vous?

Boy: Très bien, merci, et vous?

French teacher: Très bien, merci.

Et vous, ma petite fille, comment allez-vous?

Girl: Très bien, merci, et vous?

French teacher: Très bien, merci.

*This question and answer should be rehearsed with several of the children. Then a child might be selected for the teacher's role to run through the sequence once more.*

*To conclude, the following game might be played. One child is blindfolded in front of the room. Another child walks up to him, shakes hands, and says, "Bonjour, Pierre." Peter replies, "Bonjour," and adds the name (Hélène) if he can already identify the person by the voice. If he is right, the teacher and the class say, "Bravo!" If he is unable to identify the person or guesses wrong, he asks, "Comment allez-vous?" Helen (Hélène) replies, "Très bien, merci, et vous?" With this new clue he should be able to answer, "Très bien, Hélène," whereupon the class will say "Bravo, Pierre."*

# LESSON III

## Comment vous appelez-vous?

*After rehearsing as much of the previous material as seems desirable, the French teacher turns to the classroom teacher.*

French teacher: Mademoiselle, comment vous appelez-vous?

Classroom teacher: Je m'appelle Mademoiselle_______, Monsieur.

French teacher: Et moi, Mademoiselle, je m'appelle Monsieur____.

*Turning to a boy.*

Mon garçon, comment vous appelez-vous?

Robert: Je m'appelle Robert, Monsieur.

*The French teacher turns to a girl.*

French teacher: Et vous, ma petite fille, comment vous appelez-vous?

Girl: Je m'appelle Suzanne, Monsieur.

French teacher: Très bien, Suzanne.

Moi, je m'appelle Monsieur_____. Vous vous appelez Suzanne.

Suzanne: Vous vous appelez Monsieur_______.

Moi, je m'appelle Suzanne.

French teacher: Très bien, ma petite fille.

*Select one of the children to act as teacher and to run through the "What's Your Name?" sequence. Conclude with a song, perhaps "Frère Jacques." Many French songs are characteristic because they involve playing a game as well as singing. In the case of "Frère Jacques" the children can go through the motions of sleeping, pulling the ropes, the swinging of the chimes -- they can sing it as a four-part round. The classroom teacher can provide a refreshing variety of activity.*

*The words of this and other French songs will be found in Vigneras,* Chansons de France. *D.C. Heath and Company, Boston, Mass.*

## LESSON IV

### Dans la salle de classe.

*The French teacher comes into the room.*

French teacher: Bonjour, classe.

Class: Bonjour, Monsieur ______ .

French teacher: Moi, je suis le professeur.

J'entre dans la salle de classe.

*He stops a few feet from the door.*

Le Professeur:[2] Je suis dans la salle de classe.

*He goes to the desk.*

Je vais à ma place.

*He sits down.*

Je m'assieds.

*He settles comfortably in his chair.*

Je suis assis.

*He gets up.*

Je me lève.

*He stands beside his chair.*

Je suis debout.

*He repeats this sequence, accompanying the action with words each time. The classroom teacher then repeats the same sequence in the following manner:*

Classroom teacher: Bonjour, classe.

Class: Bonjour, Mademoiselle ______ .

Classroom teacher: Moi, je suis la maîtresse.

J'entre dans la salle de classe.

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[2] From this point on the French teacher will be referred to as *Le Professeur*.

*She stops a few feet from the door.*

La Maîtresse:[3] Je suis dans la salle de classe.

*She goes to the desk.*

Je vais à ma place.

*She sits down.*

Je m'assieds.

*She settles comfortably in her chair.*

Je suis assise.

*She gets up.*

Je me lève.

*She stands beside her chair.*

Je suis debout.

*A boy takes the classroom teacher's hand, accompanies her to the door, and imitates her as she repeats this routine. The teacher ends up at her desk and the boy goes to his seat. Then the same routine with a girl, who will be coached to say clearly, "Je suis assise" when she is seated. This may be repeated with several pupils.*

## LESSON V

### Qui est le professeur?

*The French teacher addresses the classroom teacher.*

Le Professeur: Qui est le professeur de français, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: Vous êtes le professeur de français, Monsieur.
Je suis la maîtresse.

*The French teacher points to a pupil.*

Le Professeur: Et Jean, est-il un professeur?

La Maîtresse: Non, Monsieur, Jean est un élève.

Le Professeur: Et Robert?

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[3] From this point on the classroom teacher will be referred to as *La Maîtresse*.

La Maîtresse: Robert est un élève, aussi.

Le Professeur: Et Louise?

La Maîtresse: Louise est une élève.

Le Professeur: Et Hélène?

La Maîtresse: Hélène est une élève, aussi.

*The French teacher turns to the pupils.*

Le Professeur: Jean, êtes-vous un élève?

Jean: Oui, Monsieur, je suis un élève.

Le Professeur: Robert, êtes-vous un élève?

Robert: Oui, Monsieur, je suis un élève.

Le Professeur: Louise, êtes-vous une élève?

Louise: Oui, Monsieur, je suis une élève.

Le Professeur: Hélène, êtes-vous une élève?

Hélène: Oui, Monsieur, je suis une élève.

*At this point the French teacher can hint at the idea of gender by pointing out the difference between the words "un élève" and "une élève." Please be sure not to turn the discussion into a treatment of grammar. The teacher can then proceed to give some idea of the numbers from one to five.*

Le Professeur: Comptons les élèves.

*He counts the pupils in a row, indicating the number of pupils.*

Un élève, deux élèves, trois élèves, quatre élèves, cinq élèves.

*To end the class, the French teacher can ask the pupils to repeat each number up to five, introducing for variety such words as "garçon," "petite fille," and "professeur" -- words which they have already had.*

## LESSON VI

### Parlez-vous français?

*The French teacher and the classroom teacher start off the conversation.*

**Le Professeur:** Parlez-vous français, Mademoiselle?

**La Maîtresse:** Oui, Monsieur, je parle français.

**Le Professeur:** Jean, parlez-vous français?

**Jean:** Oui, Monsieur, je parle français.

*The French teacher stares very hard at the window.*

**Le Professeur:** Je regarde la fenêtre.

*He looks at the board.*

Je regarde le tableau.

*He looks at the ceiling.*

Je regarde le plafond.

*He looks at the floor.*

Je regarde le plancher.

*He looks at the window again and turns to the classroom teacher.*

Mademoiselle, est-ce que je regarde la fenêtre?

**La Maîtresse:** Oui, Monsieur, vous regardez la fenêtre.

*The French teacher looks at the board.*

**Le Professeur:** Mademoiselle, est-ce que je regarde le tableau?

**La Maîtresse:** Oui, Monsieur, vous regardez le tableau.

*The French teacher looks at the ceiling.*

**Le Professeur:** Mademoiselle, est-ce que je regarde le plafond?

**La Maîtresse:** Oui, Monsieur, vous regardez le plafond.

*The French teacher stares at the floor.*

**Le Professeur:** Mademoiselle, est-ce que je regarde le plancher?

**La Maîtresse:** Oui, Monsieur, vous regardez le plancher.

*While the French teacher and the classroom teacher go through this sequence the children can repeat the French sentences in unison and practice pronouncing the words very carefully.*

## LESSON VII

### Qu'est-ce que je regarde?

*The French teacher starts off the conversation with a pupil and continues with other children. He looks at the window.*

Le Professeur: Jean, est-ce que je regarde la fenêtre?

Jean: Oui, Monsieur, vous regardez la fenêtre.

*The French teacher looks at the board.*

Le Professeur: Robert, est-ce que je regarde le tableau?

Robert: Oui, Monsieur, vous regardez le tableau.

*The French teacher looks at the ceiling.*

Le Professeur: Louise, est-ce que je regarde le plafond?

Louise: Oui, Monsieur, vous regardez le plafond.

*The French teacher looks at the floor.*

Le Professeur: Hélène, est-ce que je regarde le plancher?

Hélène: Oui, Monsieur, vous regardez le plancher.

*The French teacher now turns to the classroom teacher and continues the conversation. He again looks at the window and the other objects in turn.*

Le Professeur: Qu'est-ce que je regarde, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: Vous regardez la fenêtre, Monsieur.

Le Professeur: Qu'est-ce que je regarde, Jean?

Jean: Vous regardez la fenêtre, Monsieur.

*The French teacher repeats this with several pupils. Then he looks at the board.*

Le Professeur: Qu'est-ce que je regarde, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: Vous regardez le tableau, Monsieur.

Le Professeur: Qu'est-ce que je regarde, Henri?

Henri: Vous regardez le tableau, Monsieur.

*This routine is repeated with the words 'plafond' and 'plancher' and others if desired.*

# LESSON VIII

## Qu'est-ce que c'est?

*After the usual morning greetings in French, the French teacher begins the following sequence, indicating clearly by gestures what he is doing.*

*He goes to the board.*

Le Professeur: Je vais au tableau.

*He picks up a piece of chalk.*

Je prends la craie.

*He draws a sketch of a house.*

Je dessine une image.

Qu'est-ce que c'est, Mademoiselle?

La Maître sse: C'est une maison, Monsieur.

Le Professeur: Qu'est-ce que c'est, Jean?

Jean: C'est une maison, Monsieur.

*The French teacher draws a car and turns to the classroom teacher.*

Le Professeur: Qu'est-ce que c'est, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: C'est une automobile, Monsieur.

Le Professeur: Qu'est-ce que c'est, Henri?

Henri: C'est une automobile, Monsieur.

*The French teacher draws a chair.*

Le Professeur: Qu'est-ce que c'est, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: C'est une chaise, Monsieur.

Le Professeur: Qu'est-ce que c'est, Hélène?

Hélène: C'est une chaise, Monsieur.

*The French teacher continues the sequence by drawing a horse, a dog, and a cat, and teaching the pupils the words "un cheval," "un chien," and "un chat." The class might end with the song "Sur le pont d'Avignon" on p. 22 of* Chansons de France.

## LESSON IX

### La Maison est rouge.

*The French teacher shows colors on a chart or on cards and then shows pictures of a house, car, auto, horse, dog, and cat as indicated. First he shows the color red.*

Le Professeur: Voici le rouge. Qu'est-ce que c'est, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: C'est le rouge.

*The French teacher shows the picture of a red house.*

Le Professeur: La maison est rouge.

La Maîtresse: Jean, est-ce que la maison est rouge?

Jean: Oui, Mademoiselle, la maison est rouge.

*The French teacher shows the color green.*

Le Professeur: Voici le vert. Qu'est-ce que c'est, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: C'est le vert.

*The French teacher shows the picture of a green car.*

Le Professeur: L'automobile est verte.

La Maîtresse: Louise, est-ce que l'automobile est verte?

Louise: Oui, Mademoiselle, l'automobile est verte.

*The conversation continues with the proper color and picture.*

Le Professeur: Voici le bleu. Qu'est-ce que c'est, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: C'est le bleu.

Le Professeur: La maison est bleue.

La Maîtresse: Henri, est-ce que la maison est bleue?

Henri: Oui, Mademoiselle, la maison est bleue.

Le Professeur: Voici le jaune. Qu'est-ce que c'est, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: C'est le jaune.

Le Professeur: L'automobile est jaune.

La Maîtresse: Julie, est-ce que l'automobile est jaune?

**Julie:** Oui, Mademoiselle, l'automobile est jaune.

**Le Professeur:** Voici le noir. Qu'est-ce que c'est, Mademoiselle?

**La Maîtresse:** C'est le noir.

**Le Professeur:** Le chat est noir.

**La Maîtresse:** Robert, est-ce que le chat est noir?

**Robert:** Oui, Mademoiselle, le chat est noir.

*The conversation continues along this pattern. Naturally the French teacher and the classroom teacher can introduce all types of variations to keep the children interested and amused. The words "blanc," "gris," and "orange" can be introduced at this stage.*

## LESSON X

### Allez au tableau.

*The French teacher sits in the back of the room and asks the classroom teacher to perform the actions indicated. When the classroom teacher has shown what is to be done, the children in turn do the same thing.*

**Le Professeur:** Mademoiselle, allez au tableau, s'il vous plaît.

**La Maîtresse:** Je vais au tableau, Monsieur.

**Le Professeur:** Prenez la craie, s'il vous plaît

**La Maîtresse:** Je prends la craie, Monsieur.

**Le Professeur:** Dessinez une image, s'il vous plaît.

**La Maîtresse:** Je dessine une maison, Monsieur.

**Le Professeur:** Merci, Mademoiselle.
Allez à votre place, s'il vous plaît.

**La Maîtresse:** Je vais à ma place, Monsieur.

*The French teacher continues the sequence with a child.*

**Le Professeur:** Robert, allez au tableau, s'il vous plaît.

**Robert:** Je vais au tableau, Monsieur.

**Le Professeur:** Prenez la craie, s'il vous plaît.

**Robert:** Je prends la craie, Monsieur.

Le Professeur: Dessinez une image, s'il vous plaît.

*Robert draws the picture of a cat, a dog, a house or something else which the class has had.*

Robert: Je dessine un chat, Monsieur.

Le Professeur: Merci, Robert.
Allez à votre place, s'il vous plaît.

Robert: Je vais à ma place, Monsieur.

*The classroom teacher now takes the place of the French teacher in the back of the room and continues the sequence with another child.*

La Maîtresse: Julie, allez au tableau, s'il vous plaît.

Julie: Je vais au tableau, Mademoiselle.

La Maîtresse: Prenez la craie, s'il vous plaît.

Julie: Je prends la craie, Mademoiselle.

La Maîtresse: Dessinez une image, s'il vous plaît.

*Julie draws the picture of a car or something else.*

Julie: Je dessine une automobile, Mademoiselle.

La Maîtresse: Merci, Julie.
Allez à votre place, s'il vous plaît.

Julie: Je vais à ma place, Mademoiselle.

*Julie now takes the place of the classroom teacher in the back of the room and continues the sequence with another child. In this way all the children can have a turn at being the teacher and asking other children to draw something.*

## LESSON XI

### Et la tête....!

*After the usual greetings and review the French teacher takes up the study of the parts of the body. He touches his head.*

Le Professeur: Voici ma tête.
Avez-vous une tête, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: Oui, Monsieur, j'ai une tête.

Le Professeur: Touchez votre tête, Mademoiselle.

La Maîtresse: Voici ma tête, Monsieur.

Le Professeur: Jeanne, avez-vous une tête?

Jeanne: Oui, Monsieur, j'ai une tête.

Le Professeur: Touchez votre tête, Jeanne.

Jeanne: Voici ma tête, Monsieur.

*The French teacher touches his neck.*

Le Professeur: Voici mon cou.
Avez-vous un cou, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: Oui, Monsieur, j'ai un cou.

Le Professeur: Touchez votre cou, Mademoiselle.

*The classroom teacher takes over after the French teacher gives the new word. The French teacher touches his back.*

Le Professeur: Voici mon dos.

La Maîtresse: Avez-vous un dos, Hélène?

Hélène: Oui, Mademoiselle, j'ai un dos.

La Maîtresse: Touchez votre dos.

Hélène: Voici mon dos, Mademoiselle.

*The French teacher touches his mouth.*

Le Professeur: Voici ma bouche.

La Maîtresse: Avez-vous une bouche, Jean?

Jean: Oui, Mademoiselle, j'ai une bouche.

La Maîtresse: Touchez votre bouche.

Jean: Voici ma bouche, Mademoiselle.

*The French teacher touches his hair.*

Le Professeur: Voici mes cheveux.

La Maîtresse: Avez-vous des cheveux, Robert?

Robert: Oui, Mademoiselle, j'ai des cheveux.

La Maîtresse: Touchez vos cheveux.

Robert: Voici mes cheveux, Mademoiselle.

*This routine may be repeated with several children and then with the whole class. It is suggested that you do not try to give too many parts of the body all in one day. Leave some for the next lesson.*

## LESSON XII

### Alouette!

*Review once the sequence of Lesson XI and then continue with the parts of the body as follows:*

Le Professeur: Voici mon nez.
Avez-vous un nez, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: Oui, Monsieur, j'ai un nez.

Le Professeur: Touchez votre nez.

La Maîtresse: Voici mon nez, Monsieur.

Le Professeur: Voici mes dents.

*The classroom teacher takes over.*

La Maîtresse: Avez-vous des dents, Julie?

Julie: Oui, Mademoiselle, j'ai des dents.

La Maîtresse: Montrez-moi vos dents.

Julie: Voici mes dents, Mademoiselle.

*The French teacher gives the new word and the child takes over and asks another child.*

Le Professeur: Voici ma figure.

Julie: Avez-vous une figure, Henri?

Henri: Oui, Julie, j'ai une figure.

Julie: Touchez votre figure.

Henri: Voici ma figure, Julie.

*The French teacher again gives a new word.*

Le Professeur: Voici mes bras.

Rose: Avez-vous des bras, Albert?

Albert: Oui, Rose, j'ai des bras.

Rose: Montrez-moi vos bras.

Albert: Voici mes bras, Rose.

*The French teacher gives still another word.*

Le Professeur: Voici mes oreilles.

Albert: Avez-vous des oreilles, Ginette?

Ginette: Oui, Albert, j'ai des oreilles.

Albert: Montrez-moi vos oreilles.

Ginette: Voici mes oreilles, Albert.

*Finally the French teacher and the classroom teacher resume the conversation.*

Le Professeur: J'ai des yeux.
Avez-vous des yeux, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: Oui, Monsieur, j'ai des yeux.

Le Professeur: Fermez les yeux, Mademoiselle.

La Maîtresse: Je ferme les yeux, Monsieur.

Le Professeur: Ouvrez les yeux, Mademoiselle.

La Maîtresse: J'ouvre les yeux, Monsieur.

Le Professeur: Très bien, merci, Mademoiselle.

*The same procedure can be continued with the pupils. Conclude the class by singing "L'Alouette," on page 39 of Vigneras, Chansons de France. In singing "L'Alouette" be sure to make a game of it and point to the parts of the body mentioned in the song.*

## LESSON XIII

### Où est mon chapeau?

*The French teacher enters the classroom carrying a hat in his hand. If it is a special sort of hat -- a derby or a straw hat -- all the better. After the usual greetings, he holds out his hat.*

Le Professeur: Voici mon chapeau.

*He looks at it with an expression of admiration.*

Quel beau chapeau!

*He puts on his hat.*

Je mets mon chapeau.

*He takes off his hat.*

J'enlève mon chapeau.

*The French teacher puts on and removes his hat several times, repeating the words that accompany each gesture. Then he puts the hat on the head of one of the boys.*

Quel beau garçon!

*He puts the hat on one of the girls.*

Quelle belle petite fille!

*He repeats this action with several boys and girls. Then he turns to the classroom teacher as he is putting on his hat.*

Est-ce que je mets mon chapeau, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: Oui, Monsieur, vous mettez votre chapeau.

*The French teacher takes off his hat.*

Le Professeur: Est-ce que j'enlève mon chapeau, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: Oui, Monsieur, vous enlevez votre chapeau.

*The French teacher addresses a student.*

Le Professeur: Jean, est-ce que je mets mon chapeau?

Jean: Oui, Monsieur, vous mettez votre chapeau.

*The French teacher addresses the same question to a number of pupils. The hat may be passed from hand to hand by the pupils, each one saying as he passes it: "Je donne le chapeau à Jean." As John takes it, he says: "Merci beaucoup," then passes it to the next pupil. The scene may then be continued as follows:*

*The French teacher puts his hat on the table.*

Le Professeur: Je mets mon chapeau sur la table.

*Then he turns to the classroom teacher.*

Où est mon chapeau, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: Votre chapeau est sur la table, Monsieur.

*The French teacher picks up his hat.*

Le Professeur: Je prends mon chapeau.

*He puts his hat on a chair.*

Je mets mon chapeau sur la chaise.

*He addresses the classroom teacher.*

Où est mon chapeau, Mademoiselle?

La Maître sse: Votre chapeau est sur la chaise, Monsieur.

## LESSON XIV

### Qui a mon chapeau?

*Some or all of the foregoing material may be reviewed, especially the preceding dialogue. The conversation then proceeds as follows:*

*The French teacher gives his hat to the teacher.*

Le Professeur: Voici mon chapeau, Mademoiselle.

La Maîtresse: Merci, Monsieur.

Le Professeur: Avez-vous mon chapeau, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: Oui, Monsieur, j'ai votre chapeau.

Le Professeur: Donnez le chapeau à Jean, s'il vous plaît, Mademoiselle.

*The classroom teacher puts the hat on John's head.*

Avez-vous mon chapeau maintenant, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: Non, Monsieur, je n'ai pas votre chapeau.

Le Professeur: Avez-vous mon chapeau, Marie?

Marie: Non, Monsieur, je n'ai pas votre chapeau.

*After asking several other pupils, the French teacher speaks to John.*

Le Professeur: Qui a mon chapeau?

Jean, avez-vous mon chapeau?

Jean: Oui, Monsieur, j'ai votre chapeau.

*The French teacher holds up a handkerchief.*

Le Professeur: Voici mon mouchoir.

La Maîtresse: Quel beau mouchoir!

Donnez-moi le mouchoir, s'il vous plaît.

Le Professeur: Voici le mouchoir.

Avez-vous mon mouchoir, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: Oui, Monsieur, j'ai votre mouchoir.

Le Professeur: Donnez le mouchoir à Hélène, s'il vous plaît.

*The classroom teacher gives the handkerchief to Helen.*

Avez-vous mon mouchoir maintenant, Mademoiselle?

La Maîtresse: Non, Monsieur, je n'ai pas votre mouchoir.

Le Professeur: Avez-vous mon mouchoir, Pierre?

Pierre: Non, Monsieur, je n'ai pas votre mouchoir.

Le Professeur: Qui a mon mouchoir?

Hélène, avez-vous mon mouchoir?

Hélène: Oui, Monsieur, j'ai votre mouchoir.

*The same sequence is followed with other objects, such as "le livre," "la plume," "le crayon," etc. The lesson can be terminated with the song "Savez-vous planter les choux?"*

## LESSON XV

### Les chiens et les chats.

*The French teacher enters the classroom with a stuffed dog under one arm and a stuffed cat under the other. The animals should be fairly large and of appropriate relative size. If they are of different colors, these may be referred to during the following conversation.*

Le Professeur: Voici mon chien.
Il s'appelle Médor.
Comment mon chien s'appelle-t-il, Jean?

Jean: Il s'appelle Médor, Monsieur.

Le Professeur: Avez-vous un chien, Thomas?

Thomas: Oui, Monsieur, j'ai un chien.

Le Professeur: Comment votre chien s'appelle-t-il, Thomas?

Thomas: Il s'appelle Duke.

*The French teacher asks the same question of a number of pupils.*

Le Professeur: Et maintenant, voici mon chat.

Il s'appelle Félix.

Comment mon chat s'appelle-t-il, Louise?

Louise: Il s'appelle Félix, Monsieur.

Le Professeur: Avez-vous un chat, Hélène?

Hélène: Oui, Monsieur, j'ai un chat.

Le Professeur: Comment votre chat s'appelle-t-il?

Hélène: Il s'appelle Skippy.

*The same question is asked of a number of pupils. If the pupils have difficulty in replying, the question may be asked of the classroom teacher, who can give a reply to be imitated by the pupil. Then names of parts of the body may be reviewed, with new words added.*

Le Professeur: Médor a deux yeux.
Voici les deux yeux.
Thomas, votre chien a-t-il deux yeux?

Thomas: Oui, Monsieur, mon chien a deux yeux.

Le Professeur: Hélène, votre chat a-t-il deux yeux?

Hélène: Oui, Monsieur, mon chat a deux yeux.

Le Professeur: Jean, avez-vous deux yeux?

Jean: Oui, Monsieur, j'ai deux yeux.

*The classroom teacher picks up the cat.*

La Maîtresse: Félix a quatre pattes.
Voici les quatre pattes.
Hélène, votre chat a-t-il quatre pattes?

Hélène: Oui, Mademoiselle, mon chat a quatre pattes.

La Maîtresse: Thomas, votre chien a-t-il quatre pattes?

Thomas: Oui, Mademoiselle, mon chien a quatre pattes.

*The classroom teacher turns to the French teacher.*

La Maîtresse: Monsieur, avez-vous des pattes?

Le Professeur: Non, Mademoiselle, je n'ai pas de pattes.
Les chiens et les chats ont des pattes.
Moi, j'ai deux mains et deux pieds.

*The classroom teacher turns to a pupil.*

La Maîtresse: Jean, avez-vous des pattes?

Jean: Non, Mademoiselle, je n'ai pas de pattes.

*The French teacher and the classroom teacher continue the sequence by taking turns in asking the pupils about different parts of the body. They can review "la tête," "le cou," "le dos," "la bouche," and other words which they have had. The rest of the time can be devoted to the song "La Mère Michel," on page 24 of Vigneras,* Chansons de France.

## KEY TO SAMPLE LESSONS

This Key gives only the English equivalents of the French used in the sample lessons. All instructions and stage directions are omitted. The skillful can adapt these sentences to any other language.

## LESSON I

### Good Morning, Children

French teacher: Good morning, Miss ________.

Classroom teacher: Good morning, Sir.
Children, Mr. ________.

French teacher: Good morning, children.

Classroom teacher: Say, "Good morning, Sir."

Class: Good morning, Sir.

French teacher: Good morning, my boy.

Boy: Good morning, Sir.

French teacher: Good morning, my little girl.

Girl: Good morning, Sir.

Classroom teacher: Good morning, Sir.

French teacher: Good morning, Miss ________.

Classroom teacher: Good morning, children.

Class: Good morning, Miss ________.

Classroom teacher: Good morning, John.

John: Good morning, Miss ________.

French teacher: Thank you, my boy. Fine!
Good-by, children.

Class: Good-by, Sir.

French teacher: Good-by, Miss ________.

Classroom teacher: Good-by, Sir.

## LESSON II

### How Are You?

French teacher: Good morning, Miss________.

Classroom teacher: Good morning, Sir. How are you?

French teacher: Fine, thank you, and you?

Classroom teacher: Very well, thank you.

French teacher: Good morning, my boy.

Boy: Good morning, Sir.

French teacher: How are you?

Boy: Fine, thank you, and you?

French teacher: Very well, thank you.
And you, my little girl, how are you?

Girl: Fine, thank you, and you?

French teacher: Fine, thank you.

## LESSON III

### What Is Your Name?

French teacher: What is your name, Miss?

Classroom teacher: My name is Miss________, Sir.

French teacher: And my name, Miss________, is Mr.________.
My boy, what is your name?

Robert: My name is Robert, Sir.

French teacher: And you, my little girl, what is your name?

Girl: My name is Susan, Sir.

French teacher: Fine, Susan.
My name is Mr.________. Your name is Susan.

Susan: Your name is Mr.________.
My name is Susan.

French teacher: Fine, my little girl.

## LESSON IV

### In the Classroom.

French teacher: Good morning, class.

Class: Good morning, Mr.________.

French teacher: I am the French teacher.
I come into the room.
I am in the classroom.
I go to my seat.
I sit down.
I am seated.
I get up.
I am standing.

Classroom teacher: Good morning, class.

Class: Good morning, Miss________.

Classroom teacher: I am the classroom teacher.
I come into the room.

Classroom teacher: I am in the classroom.
I go to my seat.
I sit down.
I am seated.
I get up.
I am standing.

## LESSON V

### Who is the Teacher?

French teacher: Who is the French teacher, Miss________?

Classroom teacher: You are the French teacher, Sir.
I am the classroom teacher.

French teacher: And is John a teacher?

Classroom teacher: No, Sir, John is a pupil.

French teacher: And Robert?

Classroom teacher: Robert is a pupil, too.

French teacher: And Louise?

Classroom teacher: Louise is a pupil.

French teacher: And Helen?

Classroom teacher: Helen is a pupil, too.

French teacher: John, are you a pupil?

John: Yes, Sir, I am a pupil.

French teacher: Robert, are you a pupil?

Robert: Yes, Sir, I am a pupil.

French teacher: Louise, are you a pupil?

Louise: Yes, Sir, I am a pupil.

French teacher: Helen, are you a pupil?

Helen: Yes, Sir, I am a pupil.

French teacher: Let's count the pupils.
One pupil, two pupils, three pupils, four pupils, five pupils.

## LESSON VI

### Do You Speak French?

French teacher: Do you speak French, Miss ________?

Classroom teacher: Yes, Sir, I speak French.

French teacher: John, do you speak French?

John: Yes, Sir, I speak French.

French teacher: I am looking at the window.
I am looking at the board.
I am looking at the ceiling.
I am looking at the floor.
Miss ________, am I looking at the window?

Classroom teacher: Yes, Sir, you are looking at the window.

French teacher: Miss ________, am I looking at the board?

Classroom teacher: Yes, Sir, you are looking at the board.

French teacher: Miss ________, am I looking at the ceiling?

Classroom teacher: Yes, Sir, you are looking at the ceiling.

French teacher: Miss ________, am I looking at the floor?

Classroom teacher: Yes, Sir, you are looking at the floor.

## LESSON VII

### What Am I Looking At?

French teacher: John, am I looking at the window?

John: Yes, Sir, you are looking at the window.

French teacher: Robert, am I looking at the board?

Robert: Yes, Sir, you are looking at the board.

French teacher: Louise, am I looking at the ceiling?

Louise: Yes, Sir, you are looking at the ceiling.

French teacher: Helen, am I looking at the floor?

Helen: Yes, Sir, you are looking at the floor.

French teacher: What am I looking at, Miss ________ ?

Classroom teacher: You are looking at the window, Sir.

French teacher: What am I looking at, John?

John: You are looking at the window, Sir.

French teacher: What am I looking at, Miss ________ ?

Classroom teacher: You are looking at the board, Sir.

French teacher: What am I looking at, Henry?

Henry: You are looking at the board, Sir.

## LESSON VIII

### What Is It?

French teacher: I go to the board.
I take the chalk.
I draw a picture.
What is it, Miss ________ ?

Classroom teacher: It is a house, Sir.

French teacher: What is it, John?

John: It is a house, Sir.

French teacher: What is it, Miss ________?

Classroom teacher: It is a car, Sir.

French teacher: What is it, Henry?

Henry: It is a car, Sir.

French teacher: What is it, Miss ________?

Classroom teacher: It is a chair, Sir.

French teacher: What is it, Helen?

Helen: It is a chair, Sir.

## LESSON IX

### The House Is Red.

French teacher: Here's the color red. What is it, Miss ________?

Classroom teacher: It is the color red.

French teacher: The house is red.

Classroom teacher: John, is the house red?

John: Yes, Miss ________, the house is red.

French teacher: Here is the color green. What is it, Miss ______?

Classroom teacher: It is the color green.

French teacher: The car is green.

Classroom teacher: Louise, is the car green?

Louise: Yes, Miss ________, the car is green.

French teacher: Here is the color blue, What is it, Miss ______?

Classroom teacher: It is the color blue.

French teacher: The house is blue.

Classroom teacher: Henry, is the house blue?

Henry: Yes, Miss ________, the house is blue.

French teacher: Here's the color yellow. What is it, Miss ______?

Classroom teacher: It is the color yellow.

French teacher: The car is yellow.

Classroom teacher: Julie, is the car yellow?

Julie: Yes, Miss ________, the car is yellow.

French teacher: Here's the color black. What is it, Miss _____?

Classroom teacher: It is the color black.

French teacher: The cat is black.

Classroom teacher: Robert, is the cat black?

Robert: Yes, Miss ________, the cat is black.

## LESSON X

### Go to the Board.

French teacher: Miss ________, go to the board, please.

Classroom teacher: I am going to the board, Sir.

French teacher: Take the chalk, please.

Classroom teacher: I take the chalk, Sir.

French teacher: Draw a picture, please.

Classroom teacher: I am drawing a house, Sir.

French teacher: Thank you, Miss ________.
Go to your seat, please.

Classroom teacher: I am going to my seat, Sir.

French teacher: Robert, go to the board, please.

Robert: I am going to the board, Sir.

French teacher: Take the chalk, please.

Robert: I take the chalk, Sir.

French teacher: Draw a picture, please.

Robert: I am drawing a cat, Sir.

French teacher: Thank you, Robert.
Go to your seat, please.

Robert: I am going to my seat, Sir.

Classroom teacher: Julie, go to the board, please.

Julie: I am going to the board, Miss ________.

Classroom teacher: Take the chalk, please.

Julie: I take the chalk, Miss ________.

Classroom teacher: Draw a picture, please.

Julie: I am drawing a car, Miss ________.

Classroom teacher: Thank you, Julie.
Go to your seat, please.

Julie: I am going to my seat, Miss ________.

## LESSON XI

### And the Head....!

French teacher: Here's my head.
Have you a head, Miss ________?

Classroom teacher: Yes, Sir, I have a head.

French teacher: Touch your head, Miss ________.

Classroom teacher: Here's my head, Sir.

French teacher: Jeanne, have you a head?

Jeanne: Yes, Sir, I have a head.

French teacher: Touch your head, Jeanne.

Jeanne: Here's my head, Sir.

French teacher: Here's my neck.
Have you a neck, Miss ________?

Classroom teacher: Yes, Sir, I have a neck.

French teacher: Touch your neck, Miss ________.
Here's my back.

Classroom teacher: Have you a back, Helen?

Helen: Yes, Miss ________, I have a back.

Classroom teacher: Touch your back.

Helen: Here's my back, Miss ________.

French teacher: Here's my mouth.

Classroom teacher: Have you a mouth, John?

John: Yes, Miss ________, I have a mouth.

Classroom teacher: Touch your mouth.

John: Here's my mouth, Miss________.

French teacher: Here's my hair.

Classroom teacher: Have you hair, Robert?

Robert: Yes, Miss________, I have hair.

Classroom teacher: Touch your hair.

Robert: Here's my hair, Miss ________.

## LESSON XII

### Alouette!

French teacher: Here's my nose.
Have you a nose, Miss________?

Classroom teacher: Yes, Sir, I have a nose.

French teacher: Touch your nose.

Classroom teacher: Here's my nose, Sir.

French teacher: Here are my teeth.

Classroom teacher: Have you teeth, Julie?

Julie: Yes, Miss ________, I have teeth.

Classroom teacher: Show me your teeth.

Julie: Here are my teeth, Miss ________.

French teacher: Here's my face.

Julie: Have you a face, Henry?

Henry: Yes, Julie, I have a face.

Julie: Touch your face.

Henry: Here's my face, Julie.

French teacher: Here are my arms.

Rose: Have you arms, Albert?

Albert: Yes, Rose, I have arms.

Rose: Show me your arms.

Albert: Here are my arms, Rose.

French teacher: Here are my ears.

Albert: Have you ears, Ginette?

Ginette: Yes, Albert, I have ears.

Albert: Show me your ears.

Ginette: Here are my ears, Albert.

French teacher: I have eyes.
Have you eyes, Miss ________ ?

Classroom teacher: Yes, Sir, I have eyes.

French teacher: Close your eyes, Miss ________ .

Classroom teacher: I close my eyes, Sir.

French teacher: Open your eyes, Miss ________ .

Classroom teacher: I open my eyes, Sir.

French teacher: Fine, thank you, Miss ________ .

## LESSON XIII

### Where Is My Hat?

French teacher: Here's my hat.
What a beautiful hat!
I put on my hat.
I take off my hat.
What a handsome boy!
What a pretty little girl!
Am I putting on my hat, Miss ________ ?

Classroom teacher: Yes, Sir, you are putting on your hat.

French teacher: Am I taking off my hat, Miss ________ ?

Classroom teacher: Yes, Sir, you are taking off your hat.

French teacher: John, am I putting on my hat?

John: Yes, Sir, you are putting on your hat.

French teacher: I put my hat on the table.
Where is my hat, Miss ________ ?

Classroom teacher: Your hat is on the table, Sir.

French teacher: I take my hat.
I put my hat on the chair.
Where is my hat, Miss ________ ?

Classroom teacher: Your hat is on the chair, Sir.

# LESSON XIV

## Who Has My Hat?

French teacher: Here's my hat, Miss________.

Classroom teacher: Thank you, Sir.

French teacher: Have you my hat, Miss________?

Classroom teacher: Yes, Sir, I have your hat.

French teacher: Give the hat to John, please, Miss________.
Have you my hat now, Miss________?

Classroom teacher: No, Sir, I do not have your hat.

French teacher: Have you my hat, Marie?

Marie: No, Sir, I do not have your hat.

French teacher: Who has my hat?
John, have you my hat?

John: Yes, Sir, I have your hat.

French teacher: Here's my handkerchief.

Classroom teacher: What a beautiful handkerchief.
Give me the handkerchief, please.

French teacher: Here's the handkerchief.
Have you my handkerchief, Miss________?

Classroom teacher: Yes, Sir, I have your handkerchief.

French teacher: Give the handkerchief to Helen, please.
Have you my handkerchief now, Miss________?

Classroom teacher: No, Sir, I do not have your handkerchief.

French teacher: Have you my handkerchief, Peter?

Peter: No, Sir, I do not have your handkerchief.

French teacher: Who has my handkerchief?
Helen, have you my handkerchief?

Helen: Yes, Sir, I have your handkerchief.

## LESSON XV

### The Dogs and the Cats.

French teacher: Here's my dog.
His name is Médor.
What is my dog's name, John?

John: His name is Médor, Sir.

French teacher: Have you a dog, Thomas?

Thomas: Yes, Sir, I have a dog.

French teacher: What is your dog's name, Thomas?

Thomas: His name is Duke.

French teacher: And now, here's my cat.
His name is Felix.
What is my cat's name, Louise?

Louise: His name is Felix, Sir.

French teacher: Have you a cat, Helen?

Helen: Yes, Sir, I have a cat.

French teacher: What is your cat's name?

Helen: His name is Skippy.

French teacher: Médor has two eyes.
Here are the two eyes.
Thomas, does your dog have two eyes?

Thomas: Yes, Sir, my dog has two eyes.

French teacher: Helen, has your cat two eyes?

Helen: Yes, Sir, my cat has two eyes.

French teacher: John, have you two eyes?

John: Yes, Sir, I have two eyes.

Classroom teacher: Felix has four paws.
Here are the four paws.
Helen, does your cat have four paws?

Helen: Yes, Miss ________, my cat has four paws.

Classroom teacher: Thomas, has your dog four paws?

**Thomas:** Yes, Miss ________, my dog has four paws.

**Classroom teacher:** Sir, have you paws?

**French teacher:** No, Miss ________, I do not have paws.
Dogs and cats have paws.
I have two hands and two feet.

**Classroom teacher:** John, have you paws?

**John:** No, Miss ________, I do not have paws.